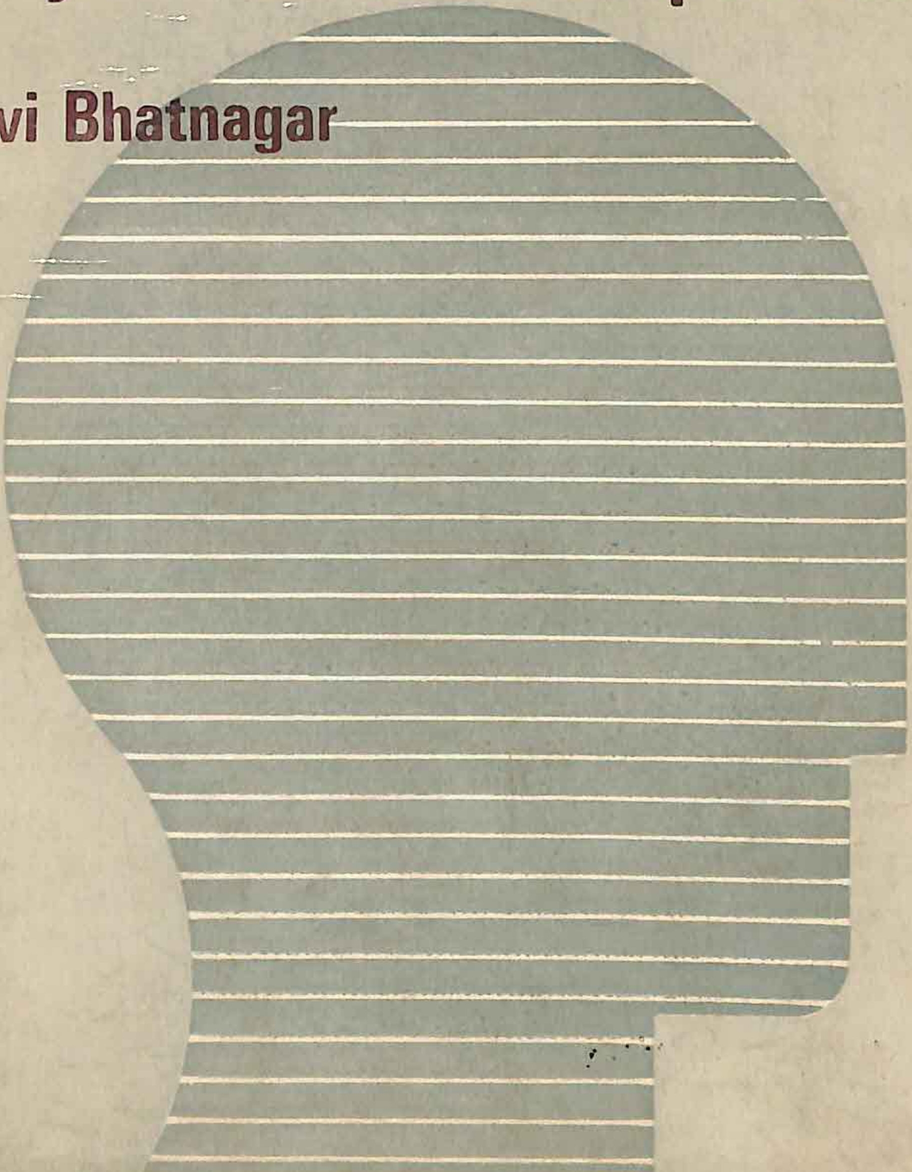
Self Consistency

A Psycho-Social Perspective

Pallavi Bhatnagar



The messages and perceptions of the 'significant others' regarding one's self are internalized in the childhood and then become the guiding cues to all his self perceptions later. The driving force to maintain a coherence in the internal dynamic organization, as well as, behavioral manifestations over time and situations is the keynote of personality integration. It is this need for self consistency which answers for the predictability of one's behaviour.

Plenty has been said and felt about the role of family in the shaping of the self. In the present book, the author makes an attempt to uncover the salience of family, both in terms of structure and size in the 'stability' of the self concept. The Indian society, which still identifies its family in strong affectional lineage of the closeknit jointness and conventional sex typology has a lot to offer to the understanding of self consistency. The present volume thus brings to the fore the independent, as well as, interactive effect of family structure, family size, sex and field dependence—independence of self consistency.

The inner mannikin of self which controls almost all overt behaviour is also dependent for its congruence and integrity upon some variables. This is the amazing fact explored in this volume.

The book will find among its readers, undergraduate and postgraduate students of Psychology of personality, professionals absorbed in research on Psychology of the Self and any one with the intriguing inquisitiveness to understand the why of the complex phenomena—the exterior calm surface of congruity and consistency in the self with the undercurrents of diversities and conflicts.

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To
My Parents

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Preface

"Children who see themselves as unliked, unaccepted and unable to perform, frequently become maladjusted and are frustrated in society. . . . A fundamentally positive self concept gives the child a basic strength for dealing with situations in life."

The truth of these words in the book 'Teaching children to love themselves" by Knight *et al.* only strengthened my belief that we make our children what they become. What intrigued me at this point was the multidimensionality of the self image projected and reflected in the eyes of one's significant others. What more, sometimes these images are so diverse from each other that the little one is just not able to be any of them and gropes for self identity.

The opinions and images about the child held by his significant others prepare the canvass for the projection of his self image, but what if these significant others have conflicting views and image of the child? Does it not give a shaky start to his growing self concept, to emerge later only as an unstable self concept? I was moved by the thought itself. . . .

The Indian family has proved to be a very healthy support system with its roots in the traditional affectional and familial bondages of Joint Family System. Does the self maintain its coherence in the various constellations of authority patterns in nuclear and joint family of varying size?

Do the gender differences surface and account for the consistency in self, independently or in interaction with family type? These were few queries which compelled me to take up this study, and just when the problem was at its inception stage, the question of a control of cognitive style posed a unique relationship between the nucleus of personality: the self and the traits which revolved around it. How difference in field dependence-independence: an index of personality traits and an important cognitive style would speak for differences in the stability of self? The present research is an attempt to find an answer to all these questions left virtually unanswered on the scenario of empirical research in psychology.

At this point, I would like to thank all those who have been involved in the completion of this study.

I owe a profound debt of gratitude to Dr. Mukta Rani Rastogi, Reader, Department of Psychology, Lucknow University under whose scholarly, benevolent and able guidance the present work was designed and completed. My heartfelt thanks to Prof. R. W. Coan, Department of Psychology, Arizona State University, U.S.A. and Prof. T. S. Dhapola, Head of the Department of Psychology, Kashi Vidyapeeth, Banaras for their valuable suggestions and new insights into the preparation of the manuscript.

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I take this opportunity to thank my family members, especially my parents who have been a constant source of inspiration and encouragement, and without whose co operation, support and love this work would not have reached completion. Special appreciation and thanks to my sister and brother-in-law Gita di and Dr. Chitrangad for sending me the articles and books from U.S.A. Thanks are due to my sisters Nita di and Priti and friends Sushma, and Abha, for their help and suport at various stages of the work. I appreciate the patient and arduous job of proof reading the typescript by Anuja and Ritu.

I also express thanks for the co-operation rendered to me by the staff of various Libraries, more specifically, I.I.T., Kanpur, NCERT, Delhi; I.I.T., Delhi; ICSSR and Lucknow University Tagore Library in collecting the relevant literature.

I remain indebted to all those researchers and psychologists whose work paved the path for the present work, broadening my academic horizon, as well as, all those students who became my subjects.

I extend my thanks to the ICSSR, New Delhi for giving the financial assistance for the publication of this volume, for which the Ph.D. degree was awarded in 1985 by Lucknow University, Lucknow. Finally, I wish to thank M/s. Mittal Publications, New Delhi for taking up the work, and of course, I owe it to their keen interest and enthusiasm that the present volume has seen the light of the day.

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1

Theoretical Framework

Psychology, like other social sciences, has its origin in the basic drive of curiosity, that is, to know and understand human behaviour. Behaviour being the functional manifestation of thoughts, attitudes, traits, and in short, the unique integration of various characteristics of the individual only reflects the various aspects of his personality. Hence, in order to understand and predict behaviour, one has to deal with it in the context of the total personality.

Investigations in the study of personality as a whole tapped on two of its basic elements: Self and Traits. Gradually they become the two important gateways of explorations in the field of personality, popularly known as the Self approach and the Trait approach.

Meaning of Self Concept

The much explored field of self varies in its meaning in accordance with the various systems and doctrines of psychology. According to James (1890), the American antecedent of functionalism, the empirical self in the broadest sense is the distinction between "me" and "mine", the components of which are classed in descending order of their implications in self esteem as "spiritual self", "material . . . . and social selves" and "bodily self". James called self the core of personality which provides it a unity.

According to Cattell (1956), another pioneer of functionalism "the self is itself alone existing as a totality and constantly emerging. It can be understood only as a unique personal opinion of experience and the self is undifferentiated in time and space".

The Gestaltists in emphasizing the predominance of the perception of whole ever parts viewed self as a unitary integration developing its potentialities by assimilating with the environment. ". . . The larger whole converges into a self . . . a seat of consciousness and a channel of self expression of the cosmos" (Josey, 1953).

Thus when Gestaltists expanded their domain from perception to personality theory, motivation and social psychology, the original principles were supplemented with a theory of needs or motives. According to Koffka (1935) the core of the ego is the self which represents and acts corresponding to genuine needs and their influence on behaviour. On the other hand, Behaviourists saw self concept as unmeasurable and unnecessary in explaining human behaviour (Combs 1981).

The early 20th century along with the emergence of various systems of Gestaltism, Structuralism, Functionalism and Behaviorism found the momentum of another group called Personalistic Psychology or "Psychology of Selves", of which Calkins (1919) was the main pioneer. Calkins brought to light the close relationship of behaviorism to self psychology.

In behaviorism the body corresponds logically to what personalist called self. Further, she stated that the testing movement had assumed the language of Self Psychology ". . . . the unity of the intelligence test has come to be the conscious self."

However the psychoanalytic school of Freud gave primary importance to the term "ego" rather than self. At times they used the terms interchangeably. Under Humanistic approach, one comes across phenomenological perception of consciousness by Rogers. Being the propounder and pioneer of non-directive psychotherapy, Rogers (1951) propounds that "Self concept or self structure may be thought of as an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness."

Further, the Humanistic approach has been heavily influenced by outstanding psychologists as Allport, Maslow etc. According to Allport (1961) "The self is something of which we are immediately aware. It is a warm central private region of our life. As such it plays a crucial role in our consciousness (a concept broader than the self), in our personality (a concept broader than consciousness) and in our organism (a concept broader than personality). Thus it is some kind of core in our being." Though Allport emphasized more on traits in his theory of personality, he did not disregard self and its consistency.

Among the psychologists of the existential school, we come across the reference of Laing (1967) who has conceptualized self from a therapeutic point of view. According to him, each of us is not a discrete entity, but is part of our culture or of the groups to which we belong, including the family. Thus according to him in social interactions people are not encouraged to discover and be their true original selves, as well as, to meet as much as possible the expectations and demands of others. A split arising between an individual's false outer self and true inner self is a consequence of intolerably confusing and conflicting social demands, sanctions and life situations.

The cognitive view of self has its roots in the view of the early self theorists (Comas and Snygg 1949, Murphy 1947, Rogers 1951, Sullivan 1947). This view conceptualized self as a system of self schemata which are knowledge structures to understand, explain and integrate a given aspect of behaviour. Markus and Smith, pioneers of the view define self schemata as "generalisations or theories about the self, developed from the repeated similar categorization and evaluation of behaviour by oneself and others, that result in a clearly differentiated idea of the kind of person one is with respect to a particular domain" (Markus and Smith 1981).

One of the important consequences of the great variety in the definitions of the self led to the development of its conceptual model at the self concept research laboratory in the department of Psychology at Sherbrook University. This model conceives self concept as having three levels of organization. These are the structures, substructures and categories (L' Ecuyer 1981).

Thus we see that different psychologists belonging to different schools of thought have coined their own meanings and definitions of self according to their viewpoints. However, below the superficial differences of various meanings, the basic fact is agreed and sought by all, that the prediction and understanding of personality is incomplete without the study of self; the nucleus of personality.

It is one of the oldest doctrines of psychology that man cannot tolerate inconsistency among his cognitions, and that he continually strives to eliminate it. It is at this point that the self, the inner manikin, becomes the focal point of attention, for it is self which maintains the equilibrium and relieves the individual of the tension and anxiety which is the resultant of the dissonance arousal.

Self Consistency

Perhaps the most compelling quality of the self is its perceived continuity and consistency. The experience of basic oneness and durability or stability in the self seems to be the general characteristic of the self schema. "Consistency is perhaps an overused term in social psychology and may be taken to mean 'compatible', 'similar', 'noncontradictory', 'conforming', 'in agreement', or 'congruous'" (White 1982).

"There is a coherence in the behaviour of any single organism which argues against an explanation in terms of chance combinations of determiners, and points to an organized dynamic system which tends towards self determination." (Lecky 1945). It is this unity and stability in the internal organization of the individual which acts against any type of dissonance or inconsistent information presented to the individual.

In most situations, dissonance actually involves the self and it is inconsistency between two cognitions of self, which produces tension, discomfort and anxiety. As a result, the individual tries to maintain a stable self concept by employing certain defense mechanisms. He may change his opinion to conform more closely to the discrepant cognition, may persuade the source of inconsistent cognition to alter his opinion, may distort the content, may discredit the source of that information, may misperceive or underrecall the events of disagreement, may deny the implication of discrepant behaviour may reduce the importance of his own opinion, or may tolerate the dissonance at least temporarily. (Adams 1961, Steiner and Rogers 1963, Glass 1968, Pervin 1970, Aronson and Carlsmith 1962, Cartwright 1956).

Thus "although the idea of self is open to change and alteration, it appears to be relatively resistant to such changes. Once established, it apparently provides a sesnse of personal continuity over space and time, and is defended against alterations, diminution, and insult". (Coopersmith 1967). Fitts (1981) also says that self concept is rather resistant to change.

According to Caird (1883) "the self exists as one self only as it opposes itself, as object to itself as subject, and immediately denies and transcends that opposition. Only because it is such a concrete unity which has in itself a resolved contradiction, can the intelligence cope with all the manifoldedness and division of the mighty universe, and hope to master its secrets. As the lightning sleeps in the dewdrops so in the simple and transparent unity of self consciousness, there is held in equilibrium that vital antagonism of opposites which . . . seems to rend the world asunder."

Among the reasons of the consistent behaviour, one may be the need to reduce the discomfort occasioned by the contradictory cognitions. Festinger (1957) while considering self consistency as one of the major motives rested his great theory of cognitive dissonance on this concept.

Consistency has been conceived as a primary motive and reinforcement (Murphy 1947, Snygg and Combs 1949, Lecky 1945). According to Freud (1966) consistency has its roots in the individual's need to preserve approval and affection from others and self. Ramkumar (1975) views consistency as a result of learning in the social setting of which he may be conscious or not. Combs (1981) contends that consistency identifies a need in all higher order animals to establish an adequate representation of their environment, so that they can cope with it with greater flexibility and efficiency than of their responses were instinctive reactions to discrete stimuli in the manner of bees and ants. This view has been supported and upheld by Kelly (1955), Lecky (1969), and Epstein (1973, 1967 and 1980).

The overall evidence from many sources thus suggests that the human mind may function like an extraordinary effective dissonance reducing valve, manipulating the perception of continuity even in the face of perception of dissonance in actual. behaviour (Mischel 1968). The need to believe in consistency of one's self from moment to moment leads to assume consistency in others also. A glance at the personality characteristics of the self consistent and inconsistent individuals is worthwhile here.

Inconsistent subjects as measured on S-I congruence lacked persistence in work habits, had feeling of oppression, inadequacy, and rejection, uneasy in social situations were aloof, easily hurt and were aware of their proneness to quarrel, susceptible to situational shifts in feelings of identity (Hanlon, Hofstaettor, and O'Connor 1954, Morse and Gergen 1970).

Further, Harigopal (1979) in an extensive study on presonality profiles of S-I discrepancy subjects found the inconsistent Ss having an indadequate control over their emotions, being easily affected by feelings, low in character strength, low in self control, casual, undependable, impatient, lacking in self insight, socially clumsy, introverted, shy withdrawn, worried, depressed, tense and restless in their behaviour. They are frustrated and discouraged, finding life dissatisfying in their failure to meet their demands and aspirations.

On the other hand, the consistent individuals are emotionally mature, stable, calm with adequate control over their emotions, realistic about life, high in will power, show socially approved character responses, moralistic, conscientious, moderately high in energy, persistent, shrewd, calculative, practical in outlook, adventurous, sociable, bold, desiring social reputation, extroverted, relaxed, composed, and low in neuroticism being well adjusted. (Harigopal 1979).

Thus according to White (1982) consistency is a notion which is exaggerated by the laymen in their attempt to interpret and predict other people's behaviour. Once we get some success in predicting an individual's behaviour, on the basis of this consistency we predict his behaviour in vain expecting not only that they will be consistent but also that they may have some particular values and attitudes.

Consistency Theories

The significance of the need for consistency has been realized by many a psychologists. The reduction of incongruence has been explained on the basis of theories of cognitive consistency, propounded by social psychologists, and theories of self consistency postulated and supported by personologists.

It is very interesting to note that consistency theories in general are based on cognitions. When there is a dissonance between cognitions that one holds about the objects unrelated to self in the environment or attitudes, it becomes the subject matter of cognitive consistency in social psychology. If this inconsistency is between the self related cognitions, it emerges as self consistency in the field of personality.

In spite of this difference, the cognitive consistency can not be separated from self consistency as they both rest on cognitions. It is the dominance of one over the other which determines the categorization and interdependence. Below is given a brief review of the various theories of cognitive and self consistency.

The earliest formalization of consistency is attributed to Heidar (1958) who coined the phrase "cognitive balance" for consistency. According to him whenever a state of imbalance exists or impends, a tendency will be produced in the individual to engage in a behaviour which will change the preceived entities in a way as to remove or prevent imbalance. The balance hypothesis asserts that the individual will tend to adjust his attitude towards the other person so as to make it consistent, both with his own self evaluations and the other's evaluation of him. If there is a discrepancy in evaluation, the individual may restore balance by developing a dislike for the other person (Harvey, Kelley and Shapiro 1957, Deutsch and Solomon 1959, Jones, Gergen and Davis 1962, Backman and Eachus 1964).

Newcomb (1953) in postulating a strain towards "symmetry" found that those who were attracted to one another agree on more matters, including their preception of self and ideal self. The principle of congruity (Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955) holds that changes in evaluation or attitudes occur in the direction of increased congruity with the prevailing frame of reference.

The basis assumption of Rosenberg's theory (1960) is that there is a consistency between a relatively stable affective or evaluative orientation towards an object and the person's belief about how that abject is related to other objects of affective significance. (Reich and Adcok 1976).

Festinger (1957) outlined his theory of cognitive dissonance on the assumption that an individual will strive towards consistency within himself, and that human beings are seen as not tolerating inconsistency when it occurs e.g. when an individual believes in one thing and yet acts contrary to this belief, he is motivated to reduce the conflict which is called dissonance. Brehm and Cohen (1962) say that inconsistency is a specific motivational state that always occurs when individual's behaviour impedes his important motive.

Rokeach (1973) gives a lot of importance to self. According to him "a contradiction within the cognitive system may be assumed to have no psychological importanee unless it implicates self conception. If two attitudes are consistent with one another but both are inconsistent with the self concept, there would be pressure to change both, though may be possible that in the process, the two become more incongruent with each other. According to Rokeach inconsistency must exist within all cognitive systems and that these inconsistencies may exist below a level of awareness. The more conscious the inconsistency, and the more they implicate the individual' self conception, the more is the change in behaviour.

All cognitive consistency models share the basic assumption that an individual tends to avoid cognitive inconsistency. Thus if inconsistency occurs, various mechanisms are employed in order to reduce the inconsistency. One can magnify the importance of resistant opinion or behaviour effectively or reduce the magnitude of the reward or punishment (Reich and Adcok 1976).

The use of these defense mechanisms strengthens and increases with the degree of inconsistency between the cognitions. In most of the studies dissonance actually involves a cognition about the self. Thus instead of stating that dissonance exists between two inconsistent cognitions; it may be more useful to state that dissonance exists between a cognition about the self and a cognition about behaviour which is inconsistent with the self (Aronson and Carlsmith 1962).

It is from this point of view that a number of psychologists have treated these theories of cognitive consistency as theories of self consistency (Deutcsh 1959, Zogonc 1960, Glass 1968, Vernon 1969 and Berkowitz 1978).

According to Lecky's theory of self consistency "the mind is a unit, an organised system of ideas. All of the ideas which belong to the system must seem to be consistent with one another the centre or nucleus of the mind is the individual's idea or conception of himself. If a new idea seems to be consistent with the ideas already present in the system and particularly with the individual's conception of himself, it is accepted and assimilated easily. If it seems to be inconsistent however, it meets with resistance and is likely to be rejected. This resistance is a natural phenomenon, it is essential for the maintenance of individuality (Lecky (1945).

Roger's (1951) self theory considers the subjective experiences as the subject matter of psychological investigations. Being the propounder of non-directive psychotherapy Rogers assumes that psychotherapy tends to bring changes in the existing self concept by making it more consistent. According to him, there is only one inherent motive—the self actualising tendency, the most important function of which is to control and direct all diverse behaviours into a consistent way, maintaining the picture of self. The non-directive therapy brings a change in the self reducing the discrepancy between his basic and ideal self image, enhancing the self consistency. Rogers emphasized that each aspect of the self should be in agreement with other aspects. This consistency of the organisation of the self results in a unified pattern (Rogers 1951).

Besides these theories, the Gestalt principle of organization such as proximity, similarity and pregnance are quite similar to the principle of consistency. Jordon (1953) states that "... balanced (consistent) situations constitute strong Gestaltants and imbalanced (inconsistent) situations constitute weak Gestaltants Kretch and Crutchfield (1948) also maintains that imbalance in the psychological field produces tension which motivaters the individual to restore consistency.

Self consistency theorists (Lecky 1945, Swann 1983, 1987) contend that individuals are motivated to maintain a consistent self image because stable self views enable them to predict and control their world (Epstein (1973). Brown, Collins and Schmidt (1988) suggest that self consistency theory needs to be revised. A tendency to seek self aggrandizement through indirect means suggests that those with low Self Esteem are not disinterested in enhancing self worth of overriding concerns with maintaining self consistency.

Reasearch on the self enhancement *vs.* self consistency debate suggests that both self enhancement and self consistency processes exert an important influence on behaviour. Among those with high self esteem, those processes will operate which promote the individual's use of self worth and enhancement, with maintaining a 'consistent self view. Those with low self esteem however express a conflict between self enhancement and self consistency concerms (Swan et al. 1987).

In short, all theories focus on the fact that the individual perceives the environment and his self as related to the same in a way that his perceptions are not contradictory. He tries to seek the experiences and cognitions which are congruent with his perceptions, support his values and avoid or reject those which are inconsistent or dissonant with his perceptions and cognitions.

With reference to the extent of consistency, Mischel's assertion that behaviour is situation specific, with some modifications continue to hold true (Mischel and Peake 1982) and provides justification for Allport's claim that "perfect consistency will never be found" (Allport 1937).

Various approaches and empirical efforts (Pour and Allen 1974, Kenrick and Stringfield 1980, Cheek 1982, Rushtom, Jackson and Panneon 1981, Chaplin and Goldberg 1985) have reached the conclusion that for any given behaviour not all persons will be equally consistent and for any group of persons not all behaviours will show equal cross situational consistency (Diener and Larson 1984).

Researches on Self Consistency

People are found to differ with respect to the degree of self consistency, just as in several other dimensions of personality characteristics. This implies that self consistency does not operate in the form of all or none principles and is supposed to be a function of some other factors.

Research done in this context reveals that demographic, personal and social factors contribute independently, as well as, in combination to the occurrence and development of self consistency. Below is given a brief review of the studies and their implications.

A. *Self Consistency and Demographic Variables*

1. *Age*: An important trend pursues developmental approach and points out the related differences in self consistency as a function of this. Self concept of children will be highly unstable, self concept of mature persons will have some optimal level of consistency across self descriptions (Hebosien 1981).

Longitudinal, as well as, studies employing various age groups have reported self consistency as a function of development. Perkins (1958) employing Q-sorts on children of IV and VI grades found basic and ideal self concept becoming increasingly congruent with time.

Engle (1958), while studying the self concept stability in 172 adolescents over a period of two years found that an overall stability existed in all the items of self concept in the test-retest evaluation for both younger and older Ss. Goraway (1977) also found no association among various age levels and stability of self concept. Similar results of no change over time have been reported by Kelly (1955), O'Connor (1976), Pearson (1986), Monge (1973) etc.

A study on children from Vth, VIIIth and IXth grades reported that self image disparity increases with increasing maturity and Real-Ideal disparity is a function of chronological age. Thus, it is low at the lower levels of maturity and vice versa (Katz and Zigler 1967, Phillips and Zigler 1980, Mummeriddey, Albers, and Strum 1986). Katz and Zigler explain high SI. disparity on the grounds that at later maturity a greater cognitive differentiation is found and it leads to a greater capacity for derogation, guilt and anxiety. Phillips and Zigler establish this relationship between S-I disparity and maturity on the basis of older children having a lower self image and higher ideal image which leads to increased cognitive differentiation.

Jorgenson and Howell (1969) in their study on children from 8-18 years found that from ages 8 through 12 there is a decrease in S-I congruence and further reported that with the onset of puberty S-I congruence is established. Jogawar (1975) in his study on adolescents reported their self concept to be unstable and further, that it changes as they grow in age from 12-20 years.

Jorgenson and Howell (1969) have further postulated that the increasing importance of superage would produce larger S-I discrepancies in latency years. Another finding is that self concept assumes stability by the age of 16 years. (Goraway 1977).

Age in its interaction with sex significantly influences self consistency operationally defined as basic-social congruence (Jain, Bhatnagar and Rastogi 1988). For psychological self concept preadolescents males have highest consistency, while adult males have lowest basic-social congruence. On the physical self concept adolescent females have highest consistency, while adolescent males have maximum consistency. Thus for psychological self concept there is a dominance of age over sex, while in the physical self concept sex dominates age differences.

Another important research in the stability of self concept is the change of self concept in a particular direction with maturity. Mullener and Laird (1971) in their study on VII and XII grade students and adults found a significant trend with age toward greater differentiation, that is, from relatively global to relatively differentiated self evaluation. Frey (1974) found similar results for a sample comprising of Canadian and Asian Indian preadolescents, adolescents and adults. Similarly, Montemayor and (Eisen (1977) using a cognitive structural approach suggest that self concept development like cognitive development proceeds from the concrete to the abstract with a few exception.

Old age has been studied by a few psychologists in relation to self consistency. Mason (1954) compared the self evaluation of 60 institutionalized individuals above 55 years and 30 subjects as young adults. Findings suggested a relationship between old age and nagative self judgement.

Hess and Bradshaw (1970) took four groups of 53 Ss of 16-18 years, 63 Ss of 18-20 years, 39 Ss of 35-50 years, and 20 Ss of 55-65 years. They reported ideal self to be significantly higher than the self image for all age groups and the older group had a greater discrepancy between self and ideal.

Zigler, Balla and Watson (1972) have argued that "the growth and development of an individual must invariably be accompanied by an increasing disparity between his assessment of his real self and his ideal self." Thus it can be said that age is a contributing factor to self consistency. The general idea one gets is that with inconsistency in the initial stages of development, the self becomes stable after 16 years, or more generally in adults, when the self evaluation is not only analytical and differentiated but also more realistic.

2. *Sex*: Sex differences have also been explored in self consistency; however there have been contradictory findings. Whereas Perkins (1958) in a sample of 251 children of IVth and VIth graders reported girls to be more congruent than boys, Jorgenson and Howell (1969) on a sample of 8-18 years found males more congruent than females. Taking Basic—Social Disparity as the index of self consistency for physical self concept female adolescents are more self consistent than male adolescents. For psychological self concept however, the age effect dominates the sex differences (Jain, Bhatnagar, and Rastogi 1988). Discrepancy between real and ideal level of nine temperament and orientation dimensions resulted in greater discrepancy in females. (Macik 1985). In another study there

was a connection between the reality of self and ideal self in boys and not in girls (Macik and Osecka 1985).

Besides these contradictions, there is evidence reporting no sex differences is self consistency. Engel (1958) in her two years longitudinal study on VIIIth and XIth grade students found that the hypothesis of boys having a more stable self concept than girls was not upheld. McIntire and Drummond's study also found no significant change in self concept as a function of sex (McIntire & Drummond 1976). Similarly no significant sex differences emerged on any measure of self congruence by Harris (1985).

Thus the fate of sex in relation on self consistency still dwindles with an air of uncertainty in the face of contradictory findings, enhancing the need to explore the factor more extensively.

3. *Socio-economic Status*: It has been found that people with different SES also have different self concepts and that there is a homogeneity between the self concept of individuals belonging to the same SES (Klausner 1953). Phillips and Zigler (1980), in a four way factorial design of grade ethnicity, SES and gender on IInd and Vth grade children found that with the exception of low SES boys Vth graders had larger disparity scores and that low SES was positively related to S-I disparity.

It can be inferred that since individuals living in low SES suffer from an inferiority complex due to deprivation, in their fancied desires have unrealistic aspirations. As a result of this their ideal image is very high and quite unlike their basic self, leading to the increased B-I disparity.

4. *Family*: In context to the influence of family on self consistency evidences report that parents play a central role in influencing and developing the self perceptions of the growing child (Bhatt 1971). Family size is negatively correlated with perceptions of parents as loving and supportive, and positively correlated with parental punitiveness, rejection and control (Kidwell 1981, Peterson and Kunz 1975, Scheck and Emerick 1976, Bell & Avery 1985). Another study reported that

in families with large number of siblings, a strong stereotype of the parental role was present (Haye and Marie 1982). Further, it was found that self esteem is positively related with the individual's satisfaction with his family and family integration (Timelli 1981). Giarrusso (1985) using the new version of exchange theory has suggested a new model of family structure, power and children's self esteem. He says that a child's opportunity to exercise power in the family influences positively his sense of power, not only in the family but in all social interactions and hence influences the child's global self esteem.

Jogawar (1982) in his study on 880 adolescents found that adolescents from families where they are accepted by parents think of themselves in more favourable terms and have greater self regard as compared to the adolescents from families where they are rejected.

Acceptance by others enhances and promotes self acceptance and self acceptance has been found to be very closely linked with self consistency (Akeret 1959). It is not an exaggeration to state that family plays the pivot role in promoting the child's self regard and he learns to accept himself not only as others see him, but also as he is, thus minimizing the discrepancies in the self (Clarke 1986).

A review of these studies reveals that among the demographic variables, the factor of age has been the nucleus of exploration; however, most of the studies have taken children and adolescents as their sample, with the exception of few studies on adults and old people (Kelly 1955, Mason 1955, Goraway 1976, Hess and Bradshaw 1970, Mummenidey, Albess and Sturm 1986). Mason (1955) although employed a cross-sectional sample of old people (55-60 years), and young people (30 years), the findings rested on the relationship of age with negative and positive self judgements rather than stability of self.

Similarly the variable of sex also takes into account pre-adolescents and adolescents in relation of self consistency and the need to explore the sex differences in later age group of adults and old people is gaining momentum in the face of contradictions and laps of time. SES is a very important factor in the development and maintenance of self and hence it needs much more attention in its relation to self consistency. Though Phillips and Zigler's study (1980) throws some light on the relation between self consistency and SES, the sample taken is that of second and fifth grades, a very tender age when the self is being developed and quite unstable.

Marital status and family have also escaped the attention though they have been evaluated important in the development of self concept, moulding of a self image, of favourable or unfavourable self evaluation of self acceptance, they have to be studied intensively in relation to self consistency. If studies with the above mentioned variables are undertaken, it would be a boon to the field of personality.

B. *Self Consistency and Social Variables*

1. *Social Interaction*: Social interaction has also been found to be related to self consistency. Adams (1961), in his study on 100 mothers used interviews to ascertain their opinions on the importance of hereditary and environmental factors in child rearing. Later they were given tape recorded authoritarian communication. The results show, that an individual in whom dissonance has been produced by exposure to a communication advocating an opinion contrary to the persons, is more likely to seen information, than a person exposed to a compatible communication.

Similarly Beckman, Secord and Peirce (1963), using ranking forms and checklists, indicate findings that if a variety of significant others are perceived by a subject to agree in defining an aspect of subject's self concept congruently, their views support each other and his self concept, and if this condition is to prevail, the particular aspect of self involved would be expected to more resistant to change, than if Ss were to perceive less consensus among significant others.

Self esteem and self consistency theories were used to explain the additive effects of ideal and self congruity on purchase motivation of consumer products. Results support the hypothesis, that ideal and self congruity significantly influence purchase motivation and the effects were additive (Sirgy 1985).

In a cross-cultural study employing Asians of Chinese, Japanese, and Korean descent and Euro-Americans, positive correlations were found between Real Ideal discrepancy on affiliation and psychological distress for Euro-Americans (Leong 1986).

No matter what surface differences are found in the results showing relationship of self consistency to social interaction, the basic fact remains that society plays a major role not only in the development of self images in the form of social image, but also holds the key to its maintenance in the guise of interactional effect of others on him, their evaluation on his performance and behaviour, their approval or disapproval of him etc.

2. *Evaluation of the Self by Others*: Howard and Berkowitz (1958) in their study on reaction to the evaluation of others assumed that an individual's reaction towards others' rating his performance would be affected by a need for self enhancement on one hand, and a need for subjectively certain or accurate evaluation on the other, with the subject's attitude being a compromise between these two needs. The results showed that reality consideration can dominate the rejection of the unrealistic or false extremely good performance ratings. The desire for reliable and accurate evaluation at times does outweigh the desire for self enhancement which increases consistency.

Similarly in another study on the role of the person's performance expectancy and other's evaluation in his reaction to success or failure, it is found that the subject exerted himself in order to make his performance coincide with his expectations. It was further reported that the self devaluating individual seems to prefer failure since to do otherwise would confront him with an inconsistency which he would then have to face (Aronson and Carlsmith 1962). Gerard and Blevans (1964) found a relationship between performance, expectancy and outcome. The Ss accomodated a performance outcome to their performance expectancy. A general trend of positive self evalution overrides the negative self evaluation.

In another study, it was found that low discrepancy Ss were more likely to reject neutral and unfavourable information than were high S-I discrepancy Ss. Moderate discrepancy Ss were also likely to accept favourable information about themselves than were high discrepancy Ss. Research evidences suggest that search for social comparative information after performance outcomes is most vigorously pursued when it is expected that the information will imply a favourable self evaluation (Pyszozynski, Greenberg and La Prella 1985). Thus the impact of evaluation of performance by others on self consistency suggests, that there is a general trend for an individual to be responsive most of the time only to information that is congruent with the self image and disregard information that is discrepant or unfavourable to his self.

3. *Social Perception*: An attempt was also made to study self consistency in perception of the self as a social and physical object by Rudin and Stagner (1958). The results showed that social perception operates according to principles parallel to those of physical object perception. S-I discrepancy has been found to relate negatively to sociability (Rosenberg 1960, Turner and Vanderlippe 1958) and acceptance of others (Suinn and Geiger 1965).

It has been universally accepted by all the psychologists that society as a mirror image of the child builds up the first step to the heights of self love, self esteem etc. Social factors are concerned more with self disclosure, self esteem etc., and very little with self consistency.

Self consistency should not only be explored in relation to factors like social interaction, evaluation of self by others and social competence, but also variables like leadership, group cohesiveness, altruism, social mobility, sociometric behaviour, etc.

C. *Self Consistency and Personality Variables*

1. *Social Desirability*: As early as 1956 Kenny in his study emphasized the importance of social desirability in self consistency. Thus according to him the high correlation between real self and ideal self rating is "undoubtedly a partial reflection of social desirability."

Pervin and Lilly (1967) on a sample of 100 males and female postgraduates found that high social desirability scores are significantly related to high self judgement and low S-I discrepancy on evaluative dimension, but not so much on potency and activity of S.D. scale. The highest correlation of social desirability to low S-I discrepancy was for high certainty and high importance ratings.

Mukherjee and Jo (1974) on the other hand, in their study on 103 high school students administered two forms of Self Insight Test, from which self consistency in the form of S-I discrepancies was derived along with the three sets of response sets (three scales). The results determined a non-significant correlation between social desirability and self-ideal disparity. These findings supported Mukherjee and Sinha's (1971) results where an Indian sample was used, and it was reported that individual differences in the relative S-I disparity measures cannot be accounted for social desirability response tendency.

Thus social desirability, as the term refers, is the tendency to put oneself in a favourable light, and if the social desirability scale measures a tendency to put the Ss in a favourable light, then subjects scoring high on the social desirability scale should also tend to rate themselves more favourable and see fewer discrepancies between themselves and the ideal self. However, in the wake of the contradictions nothing can be said on a definite note establishing the relation between the two.

2. *Intelligence*: Brownfain (1952) in his study on 62 subjects from 19-32 years found intelligence to be related with S-I disparity. Individuals with unstable self concepts and better grades and were rated more intelligent than students having more stable self concepts. Achenbach and Zigler (1963) in their study on relation between social competence and S-I disparity also found a highly significant relationship between high intelligence and high self-ideal disparity of mental patients. Another study, in this regard supporting the findings, was that of Katz and Zigler (1967), who compared the self consistency of 120 children of Vth, VIIIth, and IXth graders making use of questionnaires and other tools. Findings reported B-I disparity, a positive function of both chronological age and I.Q., i.e., higher the

intelligence, greater the S-I disparity. It was only on the ideal self ratings, that the high I.Q. boys made more extreme responses than low I.Q. boys because of a higher level of aspiration of brighter boys and, thus the extreme scores on ideal self indicates perfectionistic strivings.

In short, intelligence plays a very crucial role in determining extent of self consistency in an individual, and its relationship with self consistency is also now almost definite like that of chronological age.

3. *Self Esteem*: In a study of self perception and ideal perception it was found, that individuals having high self esteem have these characteristics that they attribute the ideal personality. Thus it is reasonable to define normal self esteem as, a tendency to perceive in the self relatively high degree of positively valued traits and relatively low degree of negatively valued traits, which shows a tendency towards maintaining consistency in the self. Silverman (1964) found that low self esteem persons have made a particular kind of adjustment to their environment which requires that they maintain a low self evaluation.

Leonard, Walsh and Osipow (1973) reported that individuals high in self esteem make choices that are consistent with their self concept, while those low in self esteem are viewed as being more subject to external factors such as social desirability, peer pressure etc. In another study it was seen that among Ss with high self esteem, the processes promoting self worth will act in accordance with maintaining a consistent self worth, while Ss having a low self esteem show a conflict between self enhancement and self consistency (Swan, Griffin, Predmore and Graines 1987, and Brown and Collins 1988). In a relationship between self esteem and self consistency Elliott (1988) reported that self esteem is causally prior to self consistency. Further, the direct effect of self esteem on self consistency was stronger for boys than for girls. Knight, and Nadel (1986) studied a relation between self esteem and the information search and policy consistency of Ss. There were negative relations between self esteem and performance feedback (request for positive feedback and other information), as well as, with number of policy changes. Further, female Ss tended to have lower self esteem scores and to change policies more frequently than males.

Hence, it is clear that self esteem determines the individual's consistency. Self esteem is related to the correct and realistic appraisal of one's positive and negative traits, and hence one whose evaluation of the total self is 'realistic, will have little probability of being inconsistent, and neither his ideals will be unrealistically high, nor his self appraisal of the real self will be devalued, but a balancee proportion of the two maintaining stability and minimizing the disparity between the self and ideal.

4. *Self Actualization*: According to Maslow's great theory of need hierarchy, since the self actualizing person functions efficiently within the world and does not make an attempt to overcome problems by physical or psychological dominance, there should be minimal discrepancy for the self concept between actual and desirable degrees of dominance for the self actualized person.

Similarly Mahoney and Harnett (1973), in their study on 75 Ss of 18-28 years using Time Competence Scale and Interpersonal Chechklist, found in their results that the self actualized individuals manifested greater congruence between the Real and Ideal Self than did non-actualized Ss. Thus we see that self actualization is not only an acceptance of the self, as it is, but also an awareness of the latent potentialities and capacities enhancing the basic congruence between the real self and ideal self, making him well adjusted in the society.

5. *Locus of Control*: With the studies available it can be said that locus of control yields contradictory findings with regard to self consistency. Thus whereas Campus (1971) in his study of personality characteristics related to trans-situational consistency of self descriptions found external locus of control to be related with self consistency. Lombardo, Fantasia and Solheim (1975), using S-I discrepancy as a mode of congruence and self acceptance as another measure, found that externals exhibit a larger S-I discrepancy than internals, which is further indicative of maladjustment. Chandler (1976) in his study on

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55 undergraduates found Externals exhibiting a larger S-I discrepancy in comparison to Internals.

6. *Anxiety*: Roger's client centered therapy postulated that the discrepancy between one's self concept and one's ideal self concept is the main source of personality disorganization and vulnerability to threat or anxiety (Rogers (1951). It was found that high S. I. disparity subjects tend to be self depreciating, anxious and insecure (Rogers and Dymond 1954).

Traux, Schuldt and Wargo (1968) in a study on hospitalized mental patients, psychoneurotic outpatients, and institutionalized juvenile delinquents, found S-I congruence negatively related to anxiety. Similar are the findings of Campus (1971), who measured consistency across 16 situations.

The relationship between consistency and anxiety is effective in two ways. When there is a disparity between the perception of the self and ideal, it generates anxiety. On the other hand, there may be a number of stressful situations which resemble the past experiences, where a result of B-I disparity and a fear of devaluation of self in one's own eyes arouses anxiety.

7. *Adjustment*: Brownfain (1952) in his study of 62 Ss using the difference between positive and negative self concept found that Ss with stable self concepts are better adjusted than those with unstable self concepts. Neuroticism and Basic-Ideal disparity tend to be positively related (Cartwright 1959). S-I congruence has been found to relate positively with adjustment (Engel 1958, Turner and Vanderlippe 1958, Traux, Schuldt and Wargo 1968; Harigopal 1979).

Self-Ideal disparity has been considered by few psychologist an index of adjustment. Rogers (1951) was of the view, and according to him, a high B-I disparity indicates stress, tension, self dissatisfaction and maladjustment while, a low B-I disparity indicates adjustment, low anxiety, greater personal integration and self satisfaction.

Another study on 78 males of 14-18 years reported the use of congruence between the self concept and the ideal self concept as a measure of adjustment with considerable degree of confidence (Hanlon, Hofstaetter and O'Connor 1954). Low correlation between self and ideal are based on a low level of self esteem which in turn is related to a relatively low adjustment level (Butler and Haigh 1954). However another study reports findings in reverse direction. Furnham and Kirris (1983) employing the sample of British and Cypriot adolescents proposed that large self-ideal disparity is a sign of healthy adjustment and development.

Lebe (1986) reported about the ego-ideal conflict of women of 20, 30 and 40 years, while they decide about motherhood and careers. They carry within them an ideal against which they measure themselves. To the extent, that the actual self falls short of the ego-ideal, the women's self esteem suffers.

A brief review of these studies make it rather obvious that adjustment, which in other words, is adapting to the stress and strain of life in a competent manner, is determined by self ideal disparity or more precisely self consistency in the individual indicating high self ideal difference correlated with maladjustment and low self-ideal difference or self-ideal congruence with adjustment.

8. *Psychotherapy*: The discussion of adjustment would be left incomplete, without the much talked about and explored aspects of psychotherapy and defences in relation to self consistency. Butler and Haigh (1954) reported in their study on changes in the relation between self concept and ideal concept consequent upon client centered counselling that thus counselling results in a decrease of self-ideal discrepancies and this reduction would be especially marked in cases judged independently as exhibiting improvement. According to them, a discrepancy between the self concept of the desired or valued self reflects a sense of self dissatisfaction which in turn generates the motivation for coming into counselling. Dymond (1954) reported that clients coming into therapy have a low self esteem and low adjustment as compared to control group while at the time of leaving therapy there is significant increase in both. It was also found that the self concept changes more during therapy than during a non-therapy period by Rudikoff (1954) in his study with a control period of 60 days.

Traux, Schuldt and Wargo (1968) in their study on mental patients, psychoneurotics and juvenile delinquents have reported results which strongly support the client centered theory of personality change. As is known, the theory specifies incongruence between self and ideal as the sources of anxiety. The results of the study further suggest, that in psychotherapy self ideal congruence correlated higher with changes in ideal self concept than basic self concept. However, in another study of Butler and Haigh the results showed that increased self ideal congruence was more related to changes in the self concept, than to changes in ideal self concept. Further, the study proved to be an evidence of the notion that psychotherapy is an interactional process in which the therapist is affeted closely.

In spite of the differences in the direction of change, it can be said with confidence, that psychotherapy helps the patients to become more self aware and it bridges the wide gap between the self and ideal with therapeutic sessions bringing them closer, thus reducing the self ideal disparity and restoring self consistency.

9. *Defenses*: With regard to the use of defenses, the results of a study ascertained that individuals with smaller self-ideal discrepancy used the defense of repression, and individuals with high self-ideal discrepancy make use of sensitization Altrochi, Parsons and Dickoff 1960). Repressors are defined as those who tend to use avoidance, denial and repression of potential threat and conflicts as a primary mode of adaptation. Sensitizers are defined as those who are alerted and perhaps over-interpret potential threat and confiict, are intellectuals and use obsessive defenses as primary mode of adaptation.

Correll (1974) in his study on the effect of sensistivity training for personal growth on the relation between self and ideal self suggests results that there is a significant positive correlation between defensiveness and congruency of perceived and ideal self. Thus we see, that defensiveness is a part of self consistency and to maintain this self picture the individual makes use of these defenses.

10. *Achievement*: Miller and Worchel (1956) in their study found out that there was no influence of need achievement and its interaction with self-ideal discrepancy in predicting response to stress. Under continued stress the best performance was of that group which had medium self-ideal discrepancy in comparison to the group with high or low self-ideal discrepancy.

In another study self consistency was used as an independent variable affecting academic achievement of 230 students from XI and XII grades. The results assert consistency of a student's self concept as a necessary condition for high academic achievement. It was further predicted from the obtained results that regardless of the magnitude of the self concept (positive or negative) if the self concept was structured consistently, the student tended toward high academic achievement (Cromier 1977). Thus it is clear, that self consistency is a must for individual to become a scholastic achiever.

11. *Cognitive Style*: Although this important personality factor of cognitive style has been touched upon by few psychologists in relation to self consistency, but the relationship between the two is still not clear in the face of contradictory findings. Among the various cognitive style that of field dependence-independence has been explored most in relation to self consistency. Rudin and Stagner (1958) in their study relating social perception to physical perception, using Rod and Frame Test, Embedded Figure Test, Brightness Contrast Test for physical perception and Picture Contextual Test, Social Contextual Index for social perception with self as social object, report that field dependent subjects show more change in their self concept across different situations than do field independent Ss. Douglas (1974) in his study on 84 postgraduates measured self consistency employing the Hidden Figure Test Form V for cognitive style and Tennesse self concept scale for self concept. His results suggest no significant effect of cognitive style upon the variability or change in the self concept.

Similar are the findings of McIntire and Drummond (1976) in their study on 63 preadolescents children using Oltman's RFT and SCAMIN for cognitive style and self consistency respectively. Self consistency was studied over a period of two years. Results reported no significant change in self concept over time as the main effect of sex or field dependence-independence.

However, Campus (1971) in his study on self consistency as related to various personality measures, made use of consistency as measured across situations and rating scales, and Gestalt closure along with Hidden Shapes Test for field independence. The results found a positive relationship of self consistency with field independence.

Thus we see that field dependence-independnnce; a bipolar continuum and index of analytical ability, as well as, a dominant personality variable, is yet to be explored extensively and deeply in order to ascertain its relationship with self consistency.

A bird's eyeview over the impact of personality variables on self consistency brings out certain significant facts, as well as, a few shortcomings forecasting certain suggestions for future studies. Among the personality variables, the most widely explored variable is adjustment. A number of studies have been done in this area and the relationship between adjustment and self consistency is a definite positive one.

Studies of self consistency in relation to intelligence obtain results in the same direction. Most of the findings so far, denote self-ideal disparity as a positive function of I.Q., which may be because of the high and perfectionistic level which they have.

The relation of self esteem to self consistency has been explored by a number of psychologists, however self actualization and self acceptance need to be studied in relation to self stability. Anxiety has been studied mostly in relation to self consistency from a pathological perspective, though few studies on normal Ss have been taken, the need to measure the same with an applied orientation of day today daily life situations is needed, than TAT pictures, as used by Campus (1971).

Cognitive style is one variable, which has dominated research in personality and perception. Among the various types of cognitive styles there is field dependence-independence which superimposes others in research. However, the same has been in a controversial position in relation to self consistency and needs more intensive research.

Harris (1985) using a composite profile approach enumerates the predictors of stability. These were understanding, affiliation, autonomy, low tendency to change and low aggression.

Measurement of Self Consistency

Approaches: Among the approaches adapted to measure self-consistency the two basic approaches are cross-sectional and longitudinal. The cross-sectional employs two or more than two groups of subjects, while in the longitudinal study the self consistency of a particular group of subjects is measured over a period.

Cross-sectional: A brief review of the work done in this area shows the dominance of the variable age in the cross-sectional studies. An interest in self consistency as a function of development resulted in the multitude of research, taking in its realm different age groups of children, pre-adolescents, adolescents, adults and old subjects (Brownfain 1952, Taylor 1955, Harlow, Hofsta and O'Connor 1957, Perkins 1958, Katz and Zigler 1967, Jorgenson and Howell 1969, Hess and Bradshaw 1870, Sappenfield 1970, Mullener and Laird 1971, Mahoney and Hartnett 1973, Douglas 1974, Cheryl 1974, Jogawar 1975, Frey 1974, Goraway 1977, Cromier and Warren 1977, Phillips and Zigler 1980, Sirgy 1985, O'Mahoney 1986, Escudero 1986, Deutsch, Kroll, Weible, Letourneau and Gosstu 1988 etc.)

Few other researches with other variables in relation to self consistency have employed this approach. Frey (1974) measured self consistency as a function of croos-cultural differences. In this study he used Canadian preadolescents, young adults, and Asian Indian preadolescents, adolescents and young adults.

Achenbach and Zigler (1963) took mental patients and juvenile delinquents as their Ss. Traux, Schuldt and Wargo (1968) took as their sample hospitalized mental patients, psychoneurotic outpatients and institutionalized juvenile delinquents.

Students have been also taken as the sample of studies on self consistency (Chandler 1976, Harigopal 1979). Campo and Marina (1984) made the study of B-I disparity on Heroin addicts along with a non-addict control sample.

Few other studies have taken as their sample Ss of various cultures. (Olowu 1985, Leong 1986).

Longitudinal: From time to time attempts have been made to study self consistency over time or longitudinally. As early as Kelly's study in 1955, we find a reference of stability of self over a period of twenty years.

Some studies were also made with the sample of preadolescents and adolescents over a period of two years, one semester, 14 years, 4-9 months and 4 years. (O'Connor 1976, Engel 1958, McIntire and Drummond 1976, Pearson 1986, Brinthaupt Liplea 1986, Harris 1985). A nine year longitudinal study of the self concept of low income yonth (Barnes and Farrier 1985) revealed that self concept remained stable over time with only a slight increase between testings. Studies related with self consistency as a function of psychotherapy also made use of longitudinal studies (Rogers 1951, Pearlman 1972).

Methods in the Measurement of Self Consistency

According to Tripett and Silber as stated by Hurlock (1976) four common kinds of variations in the stability of self concept can be measured.

1. Variations occurring and measured over time.
2. Variations occuring and measured within different self images.
3. Variations due to and studied under different interpersonal situations.
4. Variations resulting from and studied to measure the inconsistency within the different self structures; the cause.

The first two modes have been already discussed earlier the first under longitudinal studies and the second as popularly measured B-I disparity and Basic-social discrepancy or disparity between positive and negative self image etc. In place of the third and fourth methods, two other methods have gained more popularity. They are: Consistency as a function of discrepant information, and consistency over situations.

Consistency as a Function of Discrepant Information

The basic and one of the most important work is by Aronson and Carlsmith (1962). After finding the self and ideal rating and performance on a social sensitivity test, the Ss were subjected to arousal of high and low experimentally aroused expectancy first, and confirmation or disconfirmation of this expectancy later on. This influenced their final performance, supporting the hypothesis that a discrepant information leads to more inconsistency and change in last performance and vice versa. A replication of this study was made by Ward and Sandwold (1963), Cottrell (1965) and Waterman and Ford (1965) with slight variations in design and purpose here and there leading to differences in results.

It is this dissonance which channelized experimental research in the recall of learned material. It was found that the recall tended to be better for self consistent material than self inconsistent experiences which are threatning and hence, either denied or distorted (Cartwright 1956, Rogers 1951).

Silverman (1964) found low and high discrepancy Ss maintaining their self evaluations by either selectively attending to favourable or unfavourable information about themselves or by distorting this information to make it consistent with their own self evoluation. Freedman (1964) also reported a positive relation between discrepant information and change.

Wylie (1979) asserted that at any given stage in the development of the self concept the person tends to perceive or learn more readily things which are consistent with the self concept, while tending not to perceive or learn things which are inconsistent with his self concept. This is supported by Glenn and Janda (1977).

Consistency over Situations

Few attempts have been made in this area also, the tool remaining that of TAT (McIntire and Drummond 1976 and Campus 1971). Cross situational consistency has acquired a popular place in the research on self. (Diener and Larson 1984, Bour and Allen 1974, Kemrick and Stringfield 1980, Chack 1980, Chaplin and Goldberg 1986, Ozer 1986). Forzi (1984) used the concept of generalizability to denote cross situational consistency, while specificity refers to situation incidence in the activation of the schemata. At this, point it is worthwhile to cast a glance at the classification of consistency in personality as given by Ozer (1986). According to him, three general types of consistency in personality research emerge as: consistency of the person on a given behaviour across situations, across time and consistency of persons across response classes.

Tools employed in Measurement of Self Consistency

Among the various tools used, the most widely used are the rating method such as Q-sort, Semantic differential, Interpersonal checklists, psychometrics tests and the projective test of TAT.

A. *Rating Method*

1. *Q-Sort*: It involves the use of adjectives and statements which the subject sort out into a limited number of categories and predefined frequencies according to how well they described how he is, how he would like to be. It has been adjudged as the best known measure of self description (Coan 1974). It has been used extensively in measurement of self consistency (Chodorkoff 1954, Butler and Haigh 1954, Turner and Vanderlippe 1958, Parkins 1958, Engel 1958, Akeret 1959, Trux et al. 1968, Pearlman 1972, Campco, Rodriguz and Latlerana 1984 etc.). One of the most widely used Q-Sort is Butler Haigh Q-Sort.

2. *Semantic Differential* : This is a method of observing and measuring the psychological meaning of concepts, and has been used for finding the discrepancy between basic self and

ideal concept (Pervin and Lilly 1967, Jorgenson and Howell 1969, Cromier and Warren 1977, and Harigopal 1979 etc).

3. *Interpersonal Check Lists*: Popularly known as IPCL have also been employed as effective modes of self and ideal descriptions and consistency (Altrochi, Persons and Dickoff 1960, Mahoney and Harnett 1973, Glenn and Janda 1977, Leong 1986 etc.).

4. *Adjective Check Lists*: Adjective check lists have also been taken as tools by few for measuring self consistency (Katz and Zigler 1967, Hess and Bradshaw 1970 etc.).

5. *Self Concept Scales and Other Scales* : A wide range of self concept scales have been employed as measures of self consistency. To mention a few Trait graphic personality rating scale (Kelly 1955), Self Insight Test (Mukherjee and Jo 1974), Tennessee self concept scale (Douglas 1974, Pearson 1986), and many others, Piers Harris children's self concept scale (Cheryl 1974, Olowu 1985), Scamin (McIntire and Drummond 1976), 16 P.F. (Harigopal 1979) have been used for measuring the stability of self concept. Harris (1985) used the Personality Research Form of Jackson (1967).

Besides Trait Ranking Measure (Coan 1974) has been used by many a psychologists for self description. Of late a new method or rather offshoot of trait ranking measure has come up. This is the method of Spontaneous Trait generation for identifying self schemas and rating of self and ideal concept. Using the subject's own conceptualization, it is spontaneous rather than reactive (Deutsch, Kroll, Letourneau and Goss 1988).

B. *Inventories and Questionnaires*

By far, one of the most frequently used approach to personality measurement is printed tests in which individuals are required to describe themselves, it has been popularly used by many researchers (Brownfain 1952, Miller and Worchel 1956, Jogawar 1982 etc.). The questionnaire which not only translates the research objectives into specific questions, but also yields the results which fulfill the research objectives has also been used as a tool (Mason 1954, Katz and Zigler 1967, Mullener and Laird 1971, Frey 1974, Phillips and Zigler 1980 etc.).

C. *Projective Tests*

The use of projective material has been very scanty in research on self consistency. Campus (1971) and McIntire and Drummond used TAT cards for measuring consistency over situations. Rudin and Stagner (1958) used Picture Contextual Test (PCT) and Self Contextual Test as measures of self evaluation and consistency with physical measures of perception.

Besides, interviews and free written descriptions of self have also served as measures of B-I disparity (Harris, 1985, Brinthaupt and Liplea 1986).

Harris (1985) observes that volumes of research on stability of the individual's personality over time or the degree of integration of different facets of personality as evaluated by self and by others exists. However, no comprehensive measure of stability has emerged as a textural index of the fabric of personality, and for this he suggests the method of Profile approach as the best solution.

The discussion on measurement of self consistency would be left midway if the methodological inconsistencies related to it are not briefly touched upon.

Wyile (1961) inferred a diversity between theoretical and psychometric models of the various measures used to ascertain self ideal disparity and hence with the differences in the sample also they cannot be considered equivalent in their assessment.

The use of consistency by various psychologists in different semantic constructs also enhances the evidence of contradiction in the findings. Self Ideal disparity as an index of consistency has been considered as equivalent to self satisfaction (Block and Thomas, 1955, Kamano 1961), self acceptance (Feder 1968, Gildston 1967. Chandler 1976), self image (Aschenbach and Zigler 1963), self esteem (Butler and Haigh 1954, Silverman 1964, Leonard, Walsh and Osipow 1973), self actualization (Mahoney and Hartnett 1973), adjustment (Rogers 1951, Turner and Vanderlippe 1958, Harlon and Hofsta 1954) etc. This makes meaningful comparisons difficult because, though operationally these various terms and constructs may be equivalent, their implied theoretical meaning may differ (Harigopal 1979).

Further, the discrepancies in the sample may also count for the differences in findings; hence, the same variable may have different impact on self consistency in various studies, subject to the differences in sample selection of children, adolescents, young adults, old, mentally ill and disabled individuals as subjects.

Rationale of the Study

The present study measures self consistency as influenced by the demographic variables of family structure, family size, sex and the personality variable of cognitive style.

Consistency in self, which may be termed as a coherence or congruence in the individual's behaviour reflecting in all aspects of his life, many a time becomes the criterion for judgement of his personality. As such it is not only desirable but very essential to study the factors responsible for the development and stability of the self concept and it is at this point that the impetus is laid on the family.

When the influence of family in the development of the self image and other aspects of child's self concept has been accepted by all the psychologists, it becomes imperative to explore the role family plays in maintenance of the self concept. It is also, important to note how the various patterns of family in the form of structure and size have a differential impact in determining self consistency. The joint family which was initially characterized by the authority and sharing of relations among adult males rather than conjugal bonds between married couples, though has slackened its hold on the latter, still moulds the personality of the child by the number of authority figures. It is not only the parental demands which probe his developing self concept, but also restrictions and aspirations of other authority figures such as grandparents, uncles and aunts which are enforced upon him of which girls are more often and more rigidly the victims. This may result in a conflicting image of himself, a faulty self evaluation and an increasing disparity between his basic and ideal image. Whereas, in nuclear families, the child may become the victim of overindulgence, and unrealistic aspirations from the parents. How does this authority structure variation in family account for the stability of the self concept? became one of the intriguing question of the study.

Similarly the number of siblings, as an index of large and small families, also influences self consistency. Whereas the single child in the small family may be a victim of overprotection, overindulgence, and consequently overdependence of the child on the parents, a child within a large number of siblings may become quiet, aloof and withdrawn with neglect, rejection, indifference and comparison. In both the cases the self concept is virtually shaken and the personality is disintegrated. How differences in the consistency of self may be accounted for the difference in family size? became the motive for the selection of the variable.

The present study takes the variables of family structure and family size singly, as well as, in all possible combinations in relation to self consistency.

Further, the study attempts to rule out the contradictions with regard to sex in relation to self consistency by taking as its sample males and females in the age group of 20-25 years when not only the self is expected to have reached a stability but where the cognitive style has also become relatively stable.

Cognitive style refers to the processes through which the individual obtains information from the environment, transforming it in his own way and further using it to respond to the environment. Further, it is interesting to note that field dependence-independence; the bipolar continuum of cognitive style, attempts to answer all three questions pertaining to research in personality through perception. These are *(a)* the consistency of perceptual responses within the individual over situations and time, *(b)* the relation of perception to other aspects of personality, and *(c)* finally, the development and consistency of these perceptual patterns as reflected in other personality traits and characteristics.

Field independence has been defined as the basic ability to overcome an embedding context, to experience an item independentally of an organized field of which it is a part. Thus field independent mode of perception is dominated by solution of any problem with the help of internally guided cues, whereas the field dependents overcome with the global or whole quality of the problem, fail to separate it from the background effect and are always influenced by external cues.

Besides, self consistency in perception across the three tests of field dependence-independence (RFT, TRTC test and EFT), subjects were also found to be consistent in their functioning under different conditions and a failure to modify perceptual orientations suggests the deep seated nature of the characteristic. This perceptual stability has withstood the test of time also. Since the field dependence-independence continuum has the characteristics of articulated *vs.* global perception, sense of separate identity *vs.* lack of separate identity, it is assumed in the present study that field independent subjects are more self consistent also in comparison to field dependent Ss. The dominance of cognitive style as a personality index makes it all the more salient to study the relation between the two.

2

Design and Methodology

The behaviour of an individual may appear diverse and contradictory at different occasions, however, from his point of view the individual is generally consistent, acting as according to him the situation demands. Besides, the situational determinants the personality characteristics are basically responsible for the occurrence of a particular behaviour. When the situational demand is so high that it tends to lessen the influence of the personality characteristics, inconsistency in behaviour may take place, whereas consistency across situations is assumed to be a result of the dominance of personality characteristics over the influence of situations on behaviour. The present study undertakes the important personality variable, or in other words, an index of personality characteristics; field dependence-independence as an independent variable to see its influence on self-consistency. Besides finding the effect of field dependence-independence on self consistency, an effort is made to find the influence of the other two independent variables, family structure and family size in the maintenance of self stability in males and females along with identifying the most ideal family pattern for self-consistency. It would be more explicit once the purpose of the study is discussed.

Objective of the Study

The present study aims to see the effect of family structure (nuclear and joint), family size (small and large), sex (males and females) and cognitive style (field independence-dependence) on self consistency. Besides obtaining the single effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable, an attempt is also made to find the interactional effect of the independent variables on self-consistency.

Design of the Study

It is a 2×2×2×2 factorial design seeing the influence of four independent variables on the dependent variable of sel consistency. Each independent variable is divided into two categories as given below:

1. *Family Structure*
   - A. Nuclear family
   - B. Joint family
2. *Family Size*
   - A. Small family
   - B. Large family
3. *Sex*
   - A. Males
   - B. Females
4. *Cognitive Style*
   - A. Field independence
   - B. Field dependence

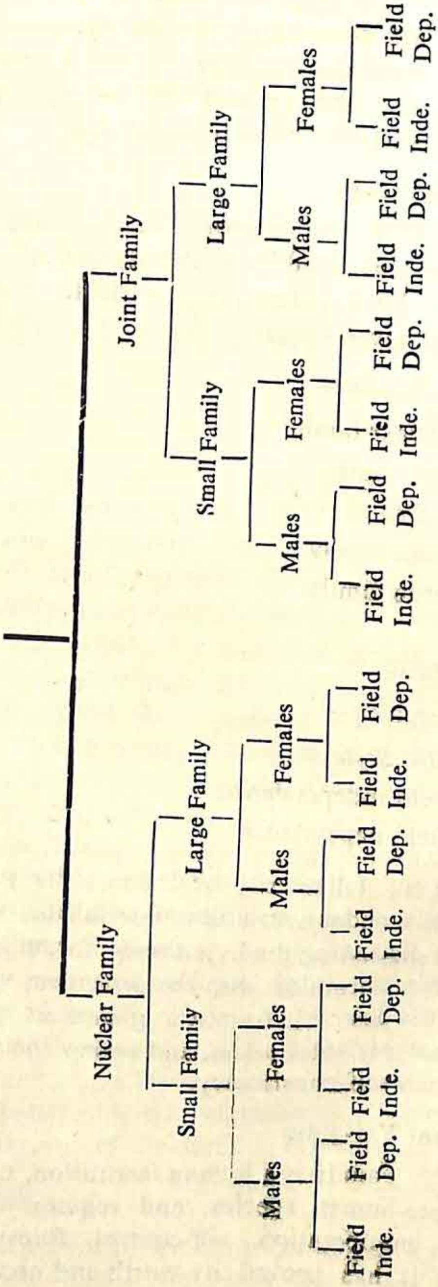
Figure No. 1.1 reveals the design of the study incorporating all four independent variables undertaken.

Before discussing the hypotheses formulated to relate the independent variables with the dependent variable of self-consistency, it is desirable to cast a glance at the nature of the independent variables taken, and review their salience in determining one's self-consistency.

Independent Variables

Family: Family is a human institution, not found in totality in any pre-human species, and requires the use of language, planning, co-operation, self-control, foresight and cultural learning. It has proved its worth and necessity ever since the

FIGURE 2.1: *Schematic Representation of the Study*



dawn of civilization, allowing a vast qualitative leap forward in co-operation, purpose of knowledge, love and creativeness. Its significance is beyond the power of expression in the moulding, developing and maintenance of personality and its nucleus: the self concept.

Family Structure

The present study takes as its first independent variable the family structure meaning thereby the Nuclear and the Joint family. Nuclear family may be defined as consisting typically of a married man and a woman with their offspring, although in individual cases one or more additional person may reside with them. (Murdock 1949).

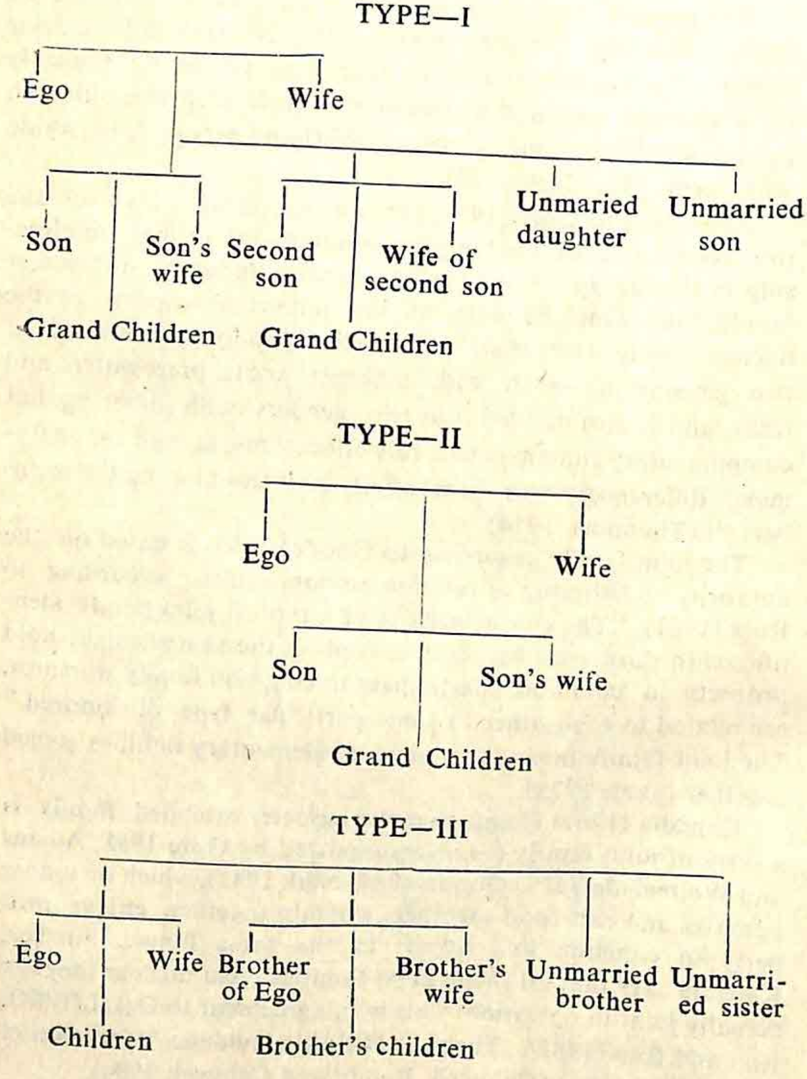
According to Gore (1968) the nuclear family involves the full acceptance of the conjugal bonds as the primary relationship in the family. A very comprehensive definition of Nuclear family, taking into its realm all the important aspects of the nuclear family states that, "the nuclear family is composed of two generations, each with different needs, prerogatives and tasks, and is also divided into two genders with differing but complimentary functions and role allocations, as well as, anatomical differences with firm affectional ties binding the members." (Theodore 1964).

The joint family according to Goode (1963) is based on the authority and sharing of relation among adults. According to Ross (1961) "The characteristics of a typical joint family identifies with those who eat food cooked on the same hearth, hold property in common, participate in common family worships, are related to each other as some particular type of kindred." The joint family means two or more elementary families joined together (Shah 1973).

Kapadia (1969) claims that the modern extended family is a form of joint family (as also supported by Gore 1968, Adams and Woltemade 1970, Goode 1987, Naik 1981), which no longer prepares and eats food together, worship together, enjoys property in common and dwells in the same house. Further, Kapadia says that although most families seem nuclear they are actually joint in operation. This is in agreement to Desai (1964), Rao and Rao (1982). There is still little evidence of transition in the family type (Caldwell, Reddy and Caldwell 1984).

The patterns and types of joint family as suggested by Gore (1968) have been employed in the present study, since it is one of the most comprehensive classification of the joint family. The classification is demonstrated in Figure 2.2.

FIGURE 2.2: *Classification of the Joint Family*



Source: Gore

Family structure has been a variable of interest for social scientists. In its relation to child behaviour from secondary sources, the results denote that children from extended families were more passive, submissive, lacking in self reliance, and initiative in comparison to children of nuclear families (Ames 1971). Narayan (1975) however in his study found that family structure was not an important variable influencing conformity as measured in an experimental study. Yet another study reports that nuclear families are more congenial for healthy and integrated personality development, and boys of single nuclear families scored higher than their counterparts of joint families (Saxena, Varija and Kapoor 1978).

Family Size

Family size has been taken as the second variable and it takes into account the two categories of small and large families. The 1951 Census of India classifies all Indian families into three types according to the number of the household members.

(*a*) The first class has the large sized family presumably the traditional large joint family; which has more than 9 members.

(*b*) The medium sized family which has 4-6 members.

(*c*) The nuclear or small family which has less than 4 members. (Ross 1965).

According to Desai in determination of size of urban families in India it was found that there are 5 sizes of families in India.

(1) Single member family basically for the individuals who come to city to earn.

(2) Two or three member families or the nuclear families.

(3) Four to six members families are mixed families which may turn into joint with time.

(4) Seven to nine members families are very likely to be joint families.

(5) Ten and above ten members families or in other words joint or extended families.

Adamchak (1977) in another study of his on mother's employment and daughter's family size preferences, with the sample of 18-49 years old married women, reported a mean ideal family size of 2.25 children.

Taking into consideration the above mentioned studies the family size was determined. Whereas Gore's classification serves as the base of family structure in the present study, by means of a self devised questionnaire, the family size is determined by Desai's classification and Census of India 1951.

Thus in nuclear type of family structure the size is controlled by the number of siblings in the family. Three siblings designate a small family in nuclear family, whereas more than 3 indicate a large nuclear family.

In joint family however if the grandparents, one/both are living with their son, his wife and children (Type II Gore) and one or two unmarried son or daughter, the linear pattern would be of the small-sized family. On the contrary, if the head or his wife stays with the families of more than one son in the same house sharing the same house, same kitchen, worshipping the deity etc. it would be a large-sized joint family. The family pattern of extended family, where the brothers stay together with their families, as well as, their unmarried brother or sister (Type III), the family size is large joint family, which has also been included in the study. A diagrammatic representation will clarify the determination of the two variables of family structure and family size in the present study.

As the Table 2.1 shows, the four groups undertaken in the study are briefly defined as:

A_1B_1 (*Nuclear, Small*): Three or less than three siblings in the typical nuclear family with just parents and children.

A_2B_1 (*Joint Small*): Where grandparents, one or both are living with their son, his wife and children and one or two unmarried son or daughter (Type II-Gore).

A_1B_2 (*Nuclear Large*): More than three siblings in a house with a typical nuclear family pattern of parents and children.

TABLE 2.1: *The Selection of Family Structures and Family Size*

		Family Structure (A)	
		A1 Nuclear	A2 Joint
Family Size (B)	B1 Small	A1B1 Nuclear, Small	A2B1 Joint, Small
	B2 Large	A1B2 Nuclear, Large	A2B2 Joint, Large

A_2B_2 *(Joint, Large)*: Where grandparents stay with family of one son in the same house, sharing property in common and the extended family, where brother's families stay together as well as unmarried brother or sister (Gore--Type I and III).

Sex

The third independent variable takes into account the males and females of the age group of 20-25 years.

Cognitive Style

It is the fourth independent variable resting on the bipolar continuum of field dependence-independence. Cognitive style of an individual determines which part of the situation would receive his attention. The essential characteristics of cognitive style are noteworthy and hence are being discussed, focussing on the internal consistency over the tests of cognitive style. The characteristics are as follows:

(1) Cognitive style are concerned with the form rather than the content of the cognitive activity. They refer to individual differences in how we perceive, think, solve problems, learn, and relate with others.

(2) Cognitive style is a pervasive dimension, which is a feature of personality and not alone of cognition. Thus

the tests of cognitive styles have potential value to assess noncognitive attributes also, and can be assessed by non-verbal (perceptual) methods.

(3) Cognitive styles are stable over time in the normal course of events, however some may be easily altered.

(4) With regard to value judgements, cognitive styles are bipolar distinguishing index between cognitive style and intelligence or other ability dimensions. Further, each pole has adaptive value under specified circumstances and thus positively related to those circumstances (Witkin Moore, Goodenough and Cox 1977).

Among the types of cognitive styles are Sharpners-Levelers, narrow and extensive scanners, psychological differentiation, or field dependence-independence, tolerance/intolerance for ambiguity (open *vs.* closed mind), locus of control, tolerance for unrealistic experiences, impulsivity, conceptualizing and strong *vs.* weak automatization (Forgus & Shulman 1979, Witkin and Goodenough 1981). Among various cognitive styles the field-dependence-independence has been the nucleus of research.

A very important issue with regard to field dependence-independence is the evidence of self consistency in performance across tasks. In the three tests of field dependence-independence; RFT, BAT, and EFT, if the same individual is tested, then it is found that the person who tilts the rod far toward the tilted frame in making it straight, is likely to be the person who tilts his body far toward the titled room to perceive the body as upright, and he is also likely to be the person who takes a long time to find the simple figure in the complex design.

Thus, the various names given on the basis of different theories are justified to label field dependents-independents as: articulated *vs.* global, differentiated *vs.* undifferentiated individuals, focusing or systematic approach *vs.* scanning and visualizing etc. In fact Witkin's famous theory of differentiation has as its base this bipolar continuum of field dependence: independence. The differentiation construct was introduced into research on field dependence-independence in 1962 which related with individual differences in a manner of establishing the upright in space (Witkin *et al.* 1962). Thus a less differentiated system is in a relatively homogeneous state; a more differentiated system is in a relatively heterogeous state. A more differentiated system shows greater self-non-self segregation, signifying definite boundaries between an inner core of attributes, feelings and needs identified as the self and the outer world, particularly others, while in a less differentiated system there is greater connectivity/binding between self and others. Further the original model of differentiation (Witkin *et al.* 1961, Figure 2.3) has been modified to the revised model (Witkin *et al.* 1979, Figure 2.4).

FIGURE 2.3

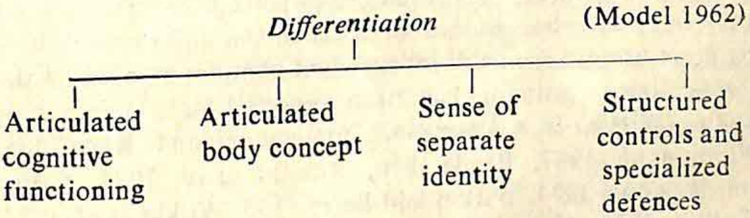
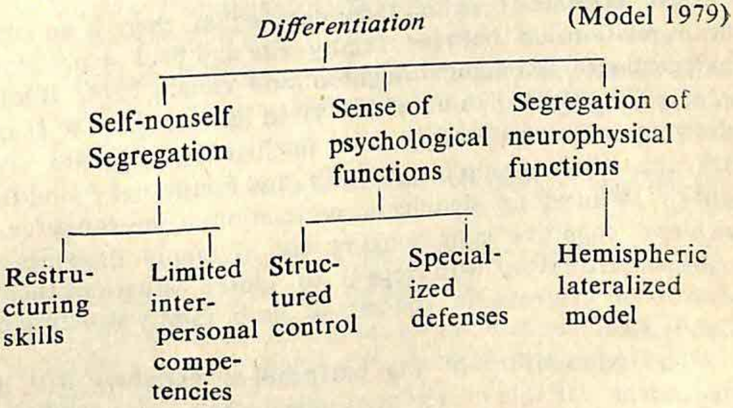

Differentiation
(Model 1962)
Articulated cognitive functioning
Articulated body concept
Sense of separate identity
Structured controls and specialized defences

FIGURE 2.4


Differentiation
(Model 1979)
Self-nonself Segregation
Sense of psychological functions
Segregation of neurophysical functions
Restru-cturing skills
Limited inter-personal compe-tencies
Struc-tured control
Special-ized defenses
Hemispheric lateralized model

In a field dependent mode of functioning, perception is dominated by the overall organization of the field, there is relative inability to perceive parts of a field as discrete, besides being more attentive, suggestive and guided by social cues, indicating limited differentiation. Conversely, a field independent style of perceiving is guided by internal cues. It is one in which parts of a field are experienced as discrete from an organized background, rather than fused with it. In other words, it is a relatively differentiated way of functioning with an enhanced perception of the body and sense of separate identity, lacking in field dependents.

In its relation with the independent variables taken in the present study, the majority of the work centres around the relation between sex and field dependence-independence. Almost all the studies in this context show positive relationship between males and field independent mode of perception, and females and field dependent pattern of perception. The general trend of females being more field dependent and males centering more around the field independent continuum, even on the cross-cultural grounds has been reported in a number of studies (Witkin, Dyk, Paterson, Goodenough and Karp 1965, Witkin *et al.* 1967, Pande 1970, Roodin *et al.* 1974, Parlee and Rajgopal 1974, Witkin and Berry 1975, Witkin *et al.* 1977, Hughes 1978, Hulfish 1978, Hideo Kojima 1978, Allen and Cholet 1978, Orloff 1977, Witkin 1979, Bhatnagar and Rastogi 1980, Sharma and Huja 1982).

Few references here and there denote that there is no significant relationship between family size and field dependence-independence (Roodin, Broughton and Vaught 1974, Roodin *et al.* 1979). Even Simmons (1979) in his study on a family drawing scale relationship with intelligence, cognitive style, sex, age, ethnic group membership and family size found four out of twenty-four significant correlations concerning family size and cognitive style making use of family drawings by subjects. However, with regard to Indian situations there is dearth of evidence in context to both family structure and family size.

The relationship of the independent variables with the dependent variable of self consistency singly has already been dealt with in the section of Review. An attempt is being made to discuss briefly the plausible interactive effect of the variables on the dependent variable. It is the last independent variable of cognitive style which was found to have no effect on the changes in the scores of self concept scale independently, as well as, in interaction with sex. (McIntire and Drummond 1976).

The variables now clarified, throw light on the need to explore them more extensively in relation to self-consistency, which is the motive of the present study. Before discussing the assumptions formulated for the present study an operational definition of self consistency according to measures employed in the present study is being given here briefly.

Self-consistency is defined as the discrepancy between the basic and ideal self-ratings of the subjects in the first instance; meaning thereby, lesser the discrepancy, more the self-consistency. Secondly, the change in the repeated performance of the task as a function of discrepant/consistent information is an index of self-consistency; thus lesser the change between the original and repeated performance with the intervention of information between the two, greater the self-consistency, and vice versa.

Hypotheses

(1) "Subjects born and brought up in nuclear families are more self consistent when compared to those belonging to joint families."

(2) "Subjects belonging to small families are more self-consistent when compared to those belonging to large families."

(3) "Males are more self-consistent when compared to females."

(4) "Field independents have a higher self-consistency when compared to field dependents."

(5) "There would be a significant interactional effects of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style on self-consistency."

(6) "Basic-Ideal discrepancy would be positively correlated with the changes in performance through expectancy

arousal by means of consistent and discrepant information; meaning thereby that higher the B-I discrepancy (d), greater the change in performance as a result of information imparted (D)."

(7) "Consistent information would yield more self-consistency in terms of changes in responses when compared to discrepant information."

Sample

A large sample of 400 males and females, equal in number with effect to family structure, and family size was taken initially. The Ss were postgraduate students of Lucknow University. Their age ranged between 20-25 years. EFT was administered on all 400 Ss, out of which 192 Ss equally distributed in the four independent variables of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style were selected for the administration of the self concept scale. (For selection of Ss on the field dependence-independence continuum refer to the section of EFT reported under Tools for the study).

Tools

1. (*a*) *Questionnaire*: The family size and family structure was determined on the lines of Gore's classification as mentioned in Table 2.1 and its discussion. This categorization was supported by a self prepared questionnaire. The tool has been revised and standardized since Bhatnagar and Rastogi (1989). Literature review of family brought forth some dominant criteria of joint family as living under the same roof, head of the family being the financial supporter, cooking on the same hearth, worshipping the same deity etc. All these were included in the questionnaire. Besides, the details of the people living in the house and the total number of siblings helped in deciding the categorization of nuclear-joint and small-large families as per Gore's classification. A pretesting was also done on 50 individuals.

1. (*b*) *Administration of the Questionnaire*: The questionnaire was self administering and was administered individually on 400 Ss. The responses of the Ss supported the selection of

the variables of family structure and family size by Gore's classification.

2(*a*). *Embedded Figure Test* (*EFT*): Cognitive style was measured on the Embedded Figure Test (Witkin 1950). The test includes 24 complex and 8 simple figures of Gottschaldt in the standard Test. The standard test (Witkin 1950) consists of 24 trials, on each of which a complex figure was employed. The order of presentation of 24 figures followed a random sequence. The complex figures were big and coloured unlike the simple figures, with the exception of one figure which, though complex, was black and white. The subject's task was to trace out the given simple figure into the complex figure. The time fixed for the solution of each problem was five minutes, with total time taken across the 24 problems serving as the score for field dependence-independence of that subject.

2(*b*). *Administering the EFT*: The test was administered individually on all 400 subjects. At the beginning of the test, each subject was given the following instructions, "I am going to show you one of these designs, I want you to describe the overall pattern that you see in it. After you examine each design, I will show you a simpler figure, which is contained (hidden) in that larger design. You will then be given the larger design again and your job will be to locate the smaller figure in it. Let us go through one to show you how it is done".

The S was then shown the practice complex figure (P—1) for 15 seconds, after which it was removed and the practice simple figure (P) was presented for 10 seconds and then it was removed. The complex figure was presented once more, with instructions to locate the simple figure in it. The S tried to solve the task and the score recorded was the time taken to locate the simple figure. When the S reported that he had found the figure, he was required to trace it, so that the E would be sure it was the correct one.

After the practice trial, the S was given the following additional instructions. "This is how you will proceed on all trials. I would like to add that in every case, the smaller figure will be present in the larger design. It will always be in the upright position. There may be several of the smaller figures in the same large design, but you are to look only for the one in the upright position. Work as quickly, as you possibly can, since I will be timing you; but be sure, that the figure you find is exactly the same as the original figure, both in size and proportion. As soon as you have found the figure, tell me at once. If you ever forget what the small figure looks like, you may ask to see it again. Are there any questions"?

This procedure was used for all the 24 problems, and 24 trials were taken for all the 400 subjects individually. The time was noted from the point of giving the problem to solve till he found the solution. Whenever the S forgot or wanted to re-examine the simple figure, he was allowed to do so, and each exposure was of 10 seconds only, and besides noting the number of exposures, the stop-watch was stopped during the period of re-examination. Each problem had a maximum time limit of five minutes and the failure to solve the problem in the given time was denoted by σ (F).

When the S reported the discovery of the simple figure within the complex one, the time was noted, however the stop watch was permitted to go on, while the S traced it. The subject's score for the whole test was the sum of the time taken to locate the simple figures in all 24 complex figures. Mean solution time thus was worked out for all the Ss.

2. (*c*) *Selection of Field Dependence-Independence in the Study*: The range of field independence-dependence was determined on the basis of the pilot study data of 150 subjects (the range was 7.00 minutes—minimum time to 26.59 minutes—maximum time for field independents, and 45.00 minutes—minimum time to 86.59 minutes—maximum time for field dependents), pre-testing data of 50 subjects (8.00 minutes minimum time – 28.59 minutes maximum time for field independents and 49.00 minutes minimum time—to 91.51 maximum time for field dependents), and finally Witkin's (1950) data on 102 subjects (1.59—minimum time to 9.50 maximum for field independents and 24.00 minutes minimum to 71.59 maximum for field dependents.)

There is a discrepancy in Witkin's and the reported data which can be interpreted on the basis of cultural differences.

However, a sample of 200, subjects, closer to the findings in the present study had time limits of 4.00 minutes to 21 minutes for field independents and 40 minutes to 79 minutes for field dependents. Hence, for the present study, the cutting points were set for individuals solving the 24 problems in less than 20 minutes as field independents and those doing the test in 40 minutes or more than that as field dependents.

3(*a*). *Self Concept Scale*: Self-consistency was measured as a disparity between Basic and Ideal image on the Self Concept Scales (Rastogi 1978). The rating scale has fifty-one items. Ten personality constructs of health and sex appropriateness, abilities, self-confidence, self-acceptance, worthiness, present, past and future, beliefs and convictions, guilt and shame, sociability, and emotional maturity, serve as a frame of reference of selection of the items; falling in varying numbers.

The items are not arranged as per construct,. but they are randomly arranged. All the statements have below them five alternative responses of strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. The subject has to put a tick (√) on the alternative which he thinks describes him best in the case of Basic, and what he thinks he would like to be in the rating of the ideal self image.

3(*b*). *Administration of the Self-Concept Scale*: The scale was self-administering. With the following instructions it was given to the S "Here are given 51 statements. Below each statement are given five responses (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree). Please read each statement carefully and respond to it by marking a (√) on any of the five responses given. If you really strongly agree with the statement, mark (√) on strongly agree and so on. There is no right or wrong response. Try to give your response according to what you feel about yourself in reference to that statement. Your answers will be kept confidential". The same scale when given again to the subject was similar in all other respects except that the S was told to give his responses according to what he would like to be in reference to that statement.

3(*c*). *Scoring of Self-Concept Scale*: Some items in this scale were scored positive, whereas others were scored negative.

The positive items were scored 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 from strongly agree to strongly disagree. On the other hand, the negative items were scored 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, with 5 towards the strongly disagree pole. The change in terms of discrepancy was summed over all ten constructs for each S as his B-I discrepancy which was an index of his self-consistency. The discrepany between the basic total score and ideal total self-score served as the score for that subject indicated as "d" in the study. Thus in this way d scores for all the constructs and subjects were computed. The d score or the disparity score was an index of self-consistency, that is higher the d score or d mean score, lower the self-consistency and vice versa.

Development of Figure to Measure Self-Consistency as a Function of Informotion

Another test as counterpart of the EFT was also devised to fulfil the purpose of the present study. Research is in progress to standardize the same, by the Researcher. Since this test had to be used as a series to EFT, (part of the task, for which the information about their performance was either consistent or, discrepant to the expectancy aroused) eleven problems were constructed, keeping in mind the basic criteria used in the making and the selection of the original EFT figures (Witkin 1951). These two criteria were the use of colours and lines. In order to ascertain the difficulty level in terms of the reaction time taken in solving the problems, corresponding with the difficulty levels of EFT problems, a pretesting of the cards was done on 50 students (females); the results of which are reported in Table 2.2.

The table not only gives an account of the reaction time and hence difficulty level of each problem, it also gives a comparative view of the data of 51 females in EFT (Witkin 1950) and the pretesting data of 50 females, for pretesting, as well as, the main data collection the figures devised were placed in plastic packets just as the EFT figures.

The set of 11 cards was given to fifty females of B. Sc. in the continuation of the standard EFT. The administration was in the same order except that the No. of simple figures

TABLE 2.2: *Mean Solution Time of EFT Problems and 11 New Problems*

Trial No.	*Figures*	*Mean sol. time in seconds N=50*	*Mean sol. time in seconds Witkin '50* N=50*	*Eleven New Probls.*	*Mean sol. time in seconds*
1.	A-1	74 secs.	129.9 secs.	I-1	155.3
2.	B-1	56	68.7	J-1	155.8
3.	C-1	166.2	99.8	K-1	205.0
4.	D-1	106	83.2	L-1	88.2
5.	E-1	215	71.0	M-1	22.0
6.	A-2	223.2	156.8	N-1	25.0
7.	F-1	46.5	18.3	K-2	204.2
8.	E-2	109.9	114.3	C-1	240.2
9.	C-2	84.4	66.7	P-1	100.4
10.	G-1	77.3	19.8	Q-1	113.5
11.	A-3	150.0	23.0	K-3	212.0
12.	H-1	114.8	151.0		
13.	E-3	77.2	48.4		
14.	C-3	48.7	46.2		
15.	D-2	76.3	18.9		
16.	G-2	70.3	41.1		
17.	A-4	94.2	16.6		
18.	E-4	46.0	48.4		
19.	B-2	43.0	27.6		
20.	C-4	85.3	17.5		
21.	G-3	89.2	24.8		
22.	A-5	84.9	23.9		
23.	E-5	142.5	57.3		
24.	C-5	86.0	23.4		

*These are results obtained by Witkin (1950) in his study of the standard test; the base for EFT in the present study.

in the new test was 9 and complex figures were 11 in number. With reaction time taken, the 11 problems were arranged in level of difficulty in the following order (from minimum time to maximum) M-1, N-1, L-1, P-1, Q-1, I-1, J-1, K-2, K-1, K-3 and 0-1. Since 0-1 gets the maximum reaction time, the mean of which is 240.2 seconds, and none of the EFT problem has such a high difficulty level, this problem was deleted. As will be clarified in the section of measurement of self-consistency as a function of information, the experimental design required only six problems. Thus following problems were taken for the study:

K-3, K-1, K-2, J-1, I-1 and Q-1. They were randomly arranged to make a set in this order I-1, K-1, J-1, K-2, Q-1 and K-3.

The failures were not taken into account as determining agents of difficulty level in the pre-testing, because the failure on a particular problem is rewarded the full time that is 5.00 minutes which is indicated by a σ in the record sheet. When the reaction time on all the problems is added, these failures are also added up, denoting indirectly the incidence of failures.

Administration of the Figures

The study by Aronson and Karlsmith (1962) is the base of the present experimental design of finding self-consistency as a function of information. However, the nature of the task is different. Whereas, in the study by Aronson and Karlsmith (1962) a social sensitivity test was given in which the subject had to be at his best in recognizing the picture of schizophrenics, the present study employed the use of EFT and a test of similar nature where the subject had to be at his best in solving the problems.

As finding out the cognitive style of each subject was deemed essential, and the experimental design was to be in a continuous series, the measurement of self-consistency as a function of information was found for all 400 subjects. After each subject had finished on the 24 problems of the EFT, he was given the following instructions: "You have just finished four sets of six cards each of this important task, now I will tell you, how you have fared in the test." As in Aronson and Carlsmith's study, a false score was given to the subject. Thus, there were two sets of scores High scores, viz., 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16 and low scores like 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6. These high and low scores were indices of arousing high and low expectancy (performance). High scores was given with instructions boosting the ego of the S arousing a high expectancy like "You have done extremely well. You have got a high score of 12/13/14/15/16 which shows that your performance in the test was remarkable and better than most. You have a very good analytical ability and a very good intelligence etc."

The low score corresponds to instructions such as "Your performance was very poor. You have a very low score of 2/3/4/5/6 and thus shows that you have done very badly in the test, bringing down your score on other aspects of personality beside the analytical ability, as intelligence and other abilities, etc."

Half of the subjects were given high scores and the other half low. After the instructions the subject was told "Now I will give you a fifth set of cards. Let's see how you fare in that. The method of solving the problems is the same." The fifth set which comprised of six self prepared problems was given to the subject. The time limit was the same of five minutes as in EFT. After the subject had finished the six problems, he was told to relax for fifteen minutes while his scores were being calculated by the investigator. Once again the investigator gave a false score to the subject, either consistent or discrepant to the expectancy aroused. The four information groups were high-high, low-low, high-low, and low-high, in which the first two are consistent and the latter two are discrepant.

After assigning the information and the corresponding score, the subjects were given the same set, with cards in a randomized order with the instructions "Now the final set of cards is being given to you. See each card carefully and solve the problems." The changes from the fifth original to the fifth repeated set indicates consistency. Greater, the change, more the inconsistency. Self consistency in this case was designated by "D"; the difference between or the change from original fifth responses to the repeated fifth as a function of information.

Analysis

To study the independent, as well as, interactional effects of the four independent variables of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style, Factorial Analysis of Variance has been employed. Further, Duncan's method of multiple comparison has been used for analyzing the significant interactional effects in the ANOVA. Besides this, the product moment correlation is also used to test the relationship between the scores of two measures of self consistency. Finally, the 't' test has also been employed in the analysis of the data.

3

Analysis of Results

The present study, as already mentioned earlier is aimed to see the impact of four independent variables, viz., family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style on self consistency. A bird's eye view of the schematic representation of the design of the study brings forth the 16 possible interactions with 12 subject falling into each group. A brief description of the 16 groups is reported in Table 3.1.

As mentioned in the section of measurement of self-consistency along the self-concept scale, Basic-Ideal discrepancy is expressed by "d" (discrepancy score) and the changes in the performance of the subjects as a result of consistent or discrepant information is denoted by "D" score. The higher the "d" or "D" scores, the lesser is the self consistency. The data obtained in terms of "d" and "D" scores have been analyzed separately which have been discussed in the following two sections.

Analysis of "d" Scoress (Difference between Basic and Ideal Self-Concept)

Mean discrepancy scores (d) for each construct for all 16 groups were computed separately and the significant effect of the four independent variables were tested through Factorial Analysis of Variance along with the Multiple Comparison (Duncan's method for testing treatment means of interaction).

TABLE 3.1: *Description of the Sixteen Groups*

Group No.	*Name of the group*	*Details of the Group*
1.	A1B1C1D1	Nuclear, Small, Males, Field Independents
2.	A1B1C1D2	Nuclear, Small, Males, Field Dependents
3.	A1B1C2D1	Nuclear, Small, Females, Field Independents
4.	A1B1C2D2	Nuclear, Small, Females, Field Dependents
5.	A1B2C1D1	Nuclear, Large, Males, Field Independents
6.	A1B2C1D2	Nuclear, Large, Males, Field Dependents
7.	A1B2C2D1	Nuclear, Large, Females, Field Independents
8.	A1B2C2D2	Nuclear, Large, Females, Field Dependents
9.	A2B1C1D1	Joint, Small, Males, Field Independents
10.	A2B1C1D2	Joint, Small, Males, Field Dependents
11.	A2B1C2D1	Joint, Small, Females, Field Independents
12.	A2B1C2D2	Joint, Small, Females, Field Dependents
13.	A2B2C1D1	Joint, Large, Males, Field Independents
14.	A2B2C1D2	Joint, Large, Males, Field Dependents
15.	A2B2C2D1	Joint, Large, Females, Field Independents
16.	A2B2C2D2	Joint, Large, Females, Field Dependents

Construct I: Health and Sex Appropriateness

The first construct of the scale deals with items related to the self perception of health and sex appropriateness. A review of the ANOVA summary table shows the emergence of variable B (family size) and variable D (cognitive style among the main effects at .05 level of significance ($F=5.20$ and 5.42 respectively $<.05$ with 1,176 df).

The curves showing self consistency—as an index of B-I discrepancy bring forth the group of field Independents achieving maximum self-consistency (d mean score=2.76) whereas this consistency decreases in the case of field Dependents (d mean score=3.46). Similarly, subjects belonging to large families achieve more consistency in comparison to subjects of small sized families (d mean=4.38 and 5.12 respectively, Figure 3.1).

Rest of the double, triple, and quartiple interactions as obvious from Table 3.2 however, remain insignificant in their effect on self-consistency.

TABLE 3.2: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct-I*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	.33	1	.33	—	
B	48.00	1	48.00	5.20*	<.05
C	1.02	1	1.02	—	
D	50.01	1	50.01	5.42*	<.05
AB	13.02	1	13.02	1.41	
AC	.33	1	.33	—	
AD	2.09	1	2.09	—	
BC	0.00	1	0.00	—	
BD	2.09	1	2.09	—	
CD	3.53	1	3.53	—	
ABC	2.52	1	2.52	—	
ABD	11.02	1	11.02	1.19	
ACD	4.08	1	4.08	—	
BCD	0.74	1	0.74	—	
ABCD	0.53	1	0.53	—	
Within	1625.00	176	9.23		
Total	1764.31	191			

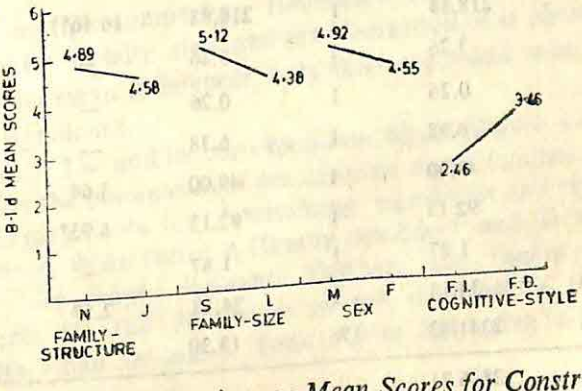


FIGURE 3.1: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct-I*

Construct II: Abilities

This construct deals with the subject's evaluation of his abilities. A review of the ANOVA summary table shows that out of the four independent variables only sex seems to have maximum influence but sex differences in self-consistency do not reach the level of significance, as clearly evident from Table 3.3 and Figure 3.2.

Further, the interaction between family size and sex is significant at .01 level of significance though both these variables do not have significant independent effect (BC=F=16.46<.01 with 1 and 176 df).

TABLE 3.3: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct-II*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	0.01	1	0.01	—	
B	3.08	1	3.08	—	
C	18.13	1	18.13	1.36	
D	1.88	1	1.88	—	
AB	27.75	1	27.75	2.09	
AC	4.38	1	4.38	—	
AD	23.38	1	23.38	1.76	
BC	218.88	1	218.88	16.46**	<.01
BD	3.26	1	3.26	—	
CD	0.26	1	0.26	—	
ABC	6.38	1	6.38	—	
ABD	49.00	1	49.00	3.68	
ACD	92.13	1	92.13	6.93*	<.01
BCD	1.87	1	1.87	—	
ABCD	34.18	1	34.18	2.57	
Within	2341.42	176	13.30		
Total	2826.71				

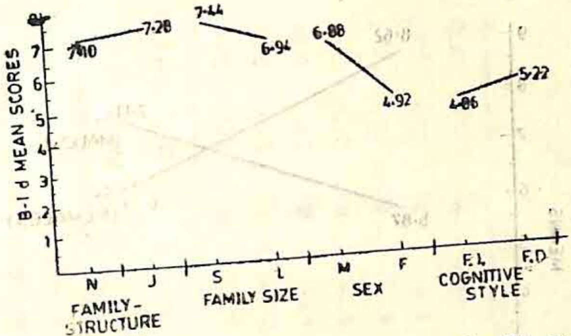


FIGURE 3.2: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct-II*

TABLE 3.4: *Multiple Comparison of Interaction between Family Size and Sex*

Combinations	*Mean*	b_1c_1	b_2c_2	b_2c_1	b_1c_2		*Shortest signi. range*	
		5.87	*6.21*	*7.73*	*8.62*		*.05**	*.01***
b_1c_1	5.87		0.34	1.86*	2.75**	R_2	1.47	1.93
b_2c_2	6.21			1.52	2.41**	R_3	1.55	2.01
b_2c_1	7.73				0.89	R_4	1.60	2.07

In multiple comparison (Duncan's test) of the treatment means for family size and sex interaction, it is observed that out of six mean differences, only three are found to be statistically significant.

Table 3.4 and its corresponding figure (Figure 3.3) clearly suggests the dominance of sex in small sized families as playing the major role for determining significant self-consistency differences when factor A (family structure) and D (cognitive style) are kept constant. Further, the family size also accounts for the differences in B-I d, more in the case of females, than in males. Thus, males belonging to the small

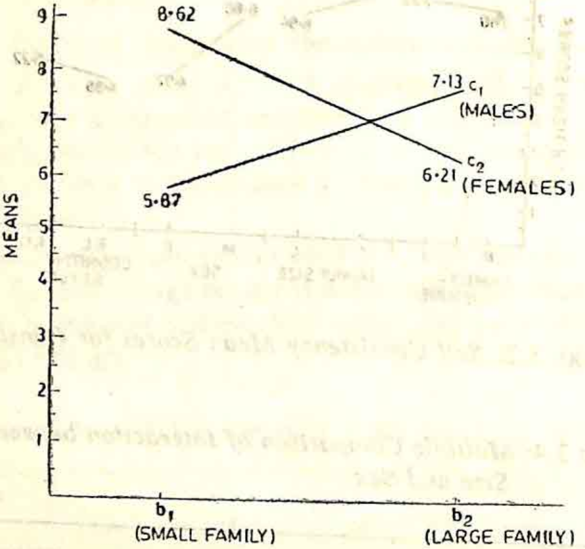


FIGURE 3.3: *Self-Consistency as a Function of Family Size and Sex*

family pattern are most self-consistent (Mean=5.87), followed by females of the large family (Mean=6.21), and maximum inconsistency is obtained by females belonging to small sized families (Mean=8.62), preceded by males of large families (Mean=7.73).

Among the triple interactions, the interaction of family structure with sex and cognitive style yields significant results in its effect on self-consistency (ACD F=6.93,<.01 with 1 and 176 df) though they all have insignificant independent effects. When referring to Table 3.5 and Figure 3.4, we come across an interesting finding, that, keeping the variable of family size constant, only one mean difference out of eight is proved

TABLE 3.5: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Structure, Sex and Cognitive Style*

Combinations		$A_1C_1D_1$ 1	$A_2C_2D_1$ 2	$A_1C_2D_2$ 3	$A_2C_1D_2$ 4	$A_1C_1D_2$ 5	$A_2C_1D_1$ 6	$A_2C_2D_2$ 7	$A_1C_2D_1$ 8	*Shortest Significant Range*		
	Means	*6.17*	*6.17*	*6.58*	*6.75*	*7.12*	*7.17*	*8.37*	*8.54*		*.05**	*.0.1***
1.	6.17		0.00	0.41	0.58	0.95	1.00	2.2	2.37	R_2	2.05	2.70
2.	6.17			0.41	0.58	0.95	1.00	2.2	2.37*	R_3	2.16	2.81
3.	6.58				0.17	0.54	0.59	1.79	1.96	R_4	2.23	2.89
4.	6.75					0.37	0.42	1.62	1.79	R_5	2.29	2.94
5.	7.12						0.05	1.25	1.42	R_6	2.33	2.99
6.	7.17							1.20	1.37	R_7	2.36	3.05
7.	8.37								.17	R_8	2.39	3.68

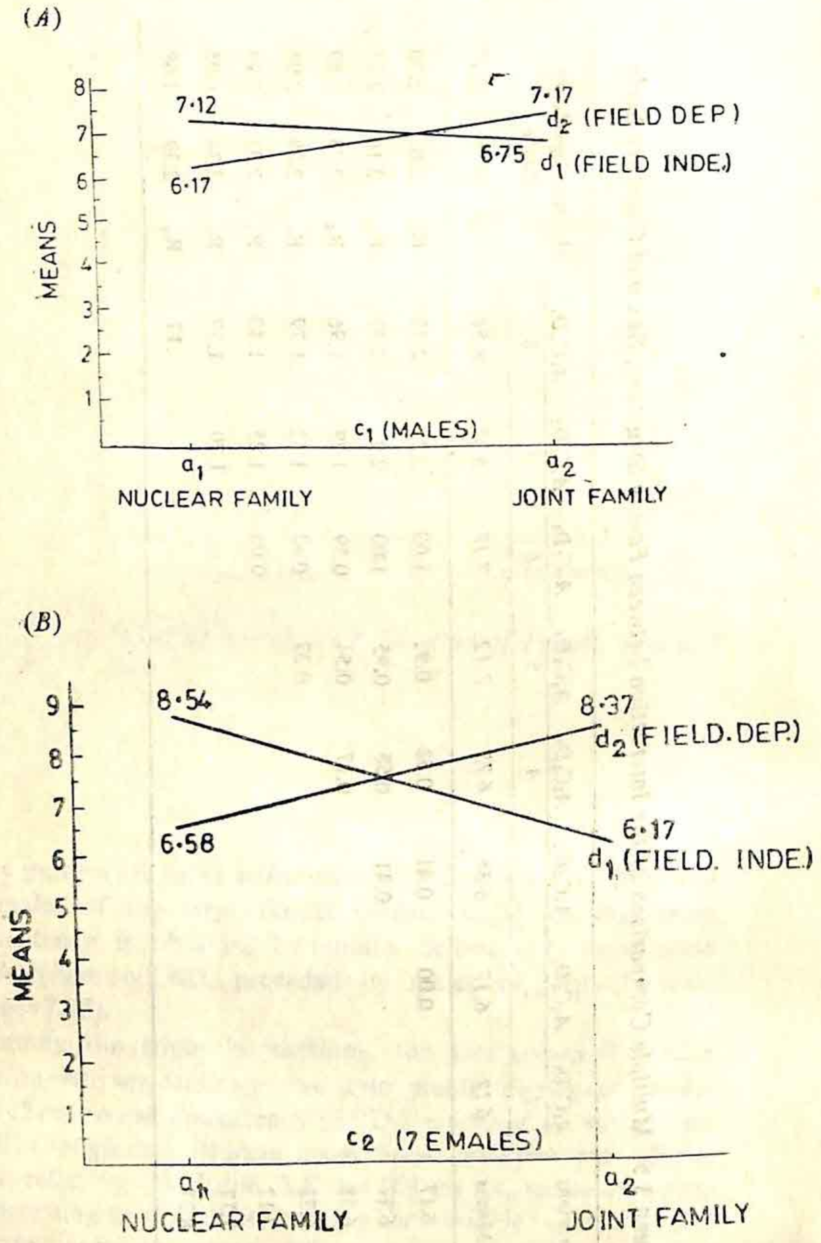


FIGURE 3.4: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family Structure, Sex and Cognitive-Style*

statistically significant at $<.05$ level. It is clearly obvious from the obtained results that family structure plays a major role in determining the self consistency of field-independents females belonging to Joint families, (Mean=6.17 which happens to be the same as that of male field independents belonging to nuclear families), in comparison to field-independent females of the Nuclear family Mean=8.54), with former being more self-consistent for this construct.

Construct III: *Self-Confidence*

Items of construct III deal with self-confidence. Table 3.6 shows that among the independent variables again, the cognitive style (variable D) influences self-consistency significantly ($F=4.62<.05$ with 1 and 176 df). This is further supported

TABLE 3.6: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct III*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	1.68	1	1.68	—	
B	20.02	1	20.02	2.51	
C	0.75	1	0.75	—	
D	36.75	1	36.75	4.62*	<.05
AB	25.53	1	25.53	3.21	
AC	1.34	1	1.34	—	
AD	1.34	1	1.34	—	
BC	56.33	1	56.33	7.08**	<.01
BD	4.08	1	4.08	—	
CD	1.02	1	1.02	—	
ABC	10.08	1	10.08	1.26	
ABD	26.99	1	26.99	3.38	
ACD	25.51	1	25.51	3.20	
BCD	0.53	1	0.53	—	
ABCD	6.03	1	6.03	—	
Within	1399.50	176	7.95		
Total	1617.48	191			

by figure 3.5 which shows that whereas the mean d score for field-independents, is 4.79, it increases to 5.10 for field dependents, enhancing self-inconsistency in the case of the latter.

Regarding the double interactions, it is the interaction of family size and sex which yields statistically significant results ($F=7.08<.01$ with 1 and 176 df), though the independent effects of family size and sex are insignificant in this construct. When multiple comparison is employed, it is seen, that keeping the factors of family structure and cognitive style constant, it is the family size which brings differences in mean consistency scores.

This difference in family size is more markedly observed in the case of the females (Means=4.06 and 5.79 for large and small sized families respectively) as is clearly evident from Table 3.7 and figure 3.6. Thus, it is females belonging to large sized families who are most self consistent in the B-I perception of self confidence.

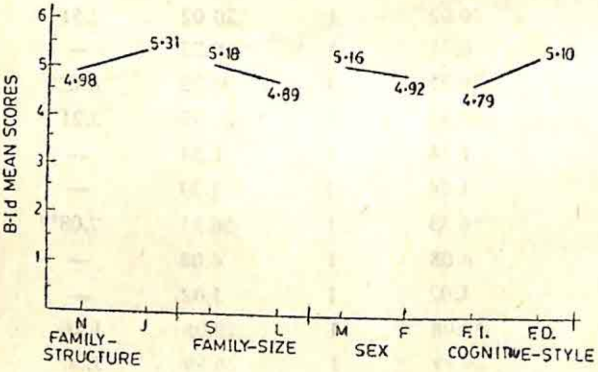


FIGURE 3.5: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct III*

TABLE 3.7: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Size and Sex*

Combinations	Means	b_2c_2	b_2c_1	b_1c_1	b_1c_2	Shortest significant Range		
		4.06	4.58	5.02	5.79		.05*	.01**
b_2c_2	4.06		0.52	0.96	1.73**	R_2	1.14	1.49
b_1c_1	4.58			0.44	1.21*	R_3	1.20	1.56
b_2c_1	5.02				0.77	R_4	1.24	1.60

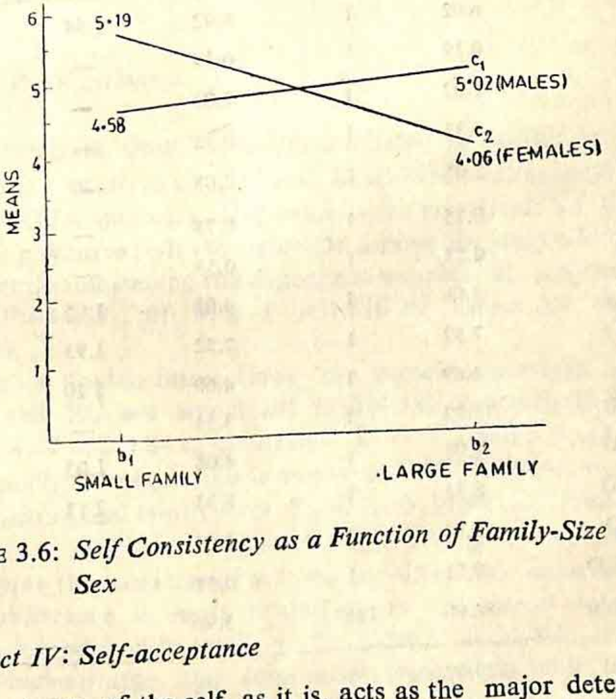


FIGURE 3.6: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Size and Sex*

Construct IV: Self-acceptance

Acceptance of the self, as it is, acts as the major determinant of the mature and self-actualized personality. The items related with this construct of personality have also been analyzed in the same manner as the preceding constructs. As the results show, among the main effects in Table 3.8 none of the variables significantly influence self-consistancy at either point of significance. The curves in the figure also clearly support it (Figure 3.7).

Further, it is rather interesting to note, that none of the interactive effects (double, triple and quartiple) significantly influence self-consistency for this construct of self-acceptance.

TABLE 3.8: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct IV*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	6.02	1	6.02	1.54	
B	0.19	1	0.19	—	
C	1.02	1	1.02	—	
D	0.33	1	0.33	—	
AB	2.08	1	2.08	—	
AC	0.75	1	0.75	—	
AD	0.53	1	0.53	—	
BC	4.08	1	4.08	1.05	
BD	7.52	1	7.52	1.93	
CD	4.69	1	4.69	1.20	
ABC	3.53	1	3.53	—	
ABD	4.08	1	4.08	1.05	
ACD	8.33	1	8.33	2.13	
BCD	0.01	1	0.01	—	
ABCD	0.51	1	0.51		
Within	686.00	176	3.90		
Total	729.67	191			

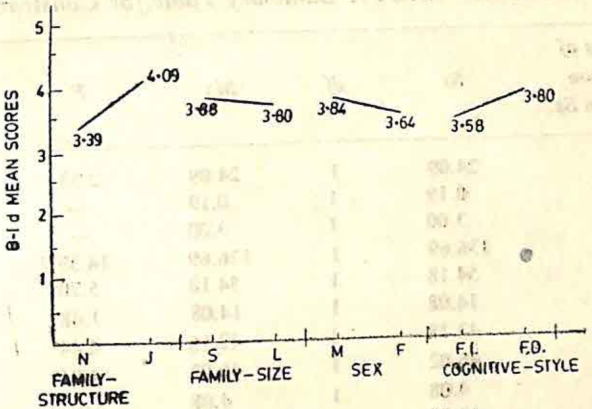


FIGURE 3.7: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct IV.*

Construct V: Worthiness

This construct deals with items related to worthiness or realizing one's worth in context with Basic-Ideal discrepancy.

The ANOVA summary table exhibits the emergence of the variable of cognitive style (Variable D), among the main effects, in significantly influencing the dependent variable of self-consistency ($F = 14.39 < .01$ with 1 and 176 df, Table 3.9 and Figure 3.8).

Among the double interactions, the three interactions of AB, AD, and BC are significant in ANOVA summary table ($Fs = 5.70$, 4.44 and 4.84 respectively $< .05$ with 1 and 176 df).

When multiple comparison is employed for AB interactions (family structure and family size), Table 3.10 shows that family structure plays an important role in determining self-consistency, keeping the variables of sex and cognitive style constant, and this difference is more prominent in the case of large families in comparison to small families (Means being 5.31 and 7.08 for Nuclear-large and Joint-large respectively with the former being most self-consistent as evident from Table 3.10 and Figure 3.9).

TABLE 3.9: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct V*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	24.09	1	24.09	2.53	
B	0.19	1	0.19	—	
C	3.00	1	3.00	—	
D	136.69	1	136.69	14.39**	<.01
AB	54.18	1	54.18	5.70*	<.05
AC	14.08	1	14.08	1.48	
AD	42.18	1	42.18	4.44*	<.05
BC	46.02	1	46.02	4.84*	<.05
BD	4.08	1	4.08	—	
CD	13.02	1	13.02	1.37	
ABC	1.69	1	1.69	—	
ABD	48.01	1	48.01	5.05*	<.05
ACD	1.03	1	1.03	—	
BCD	0.00	1	0.00	—	
ABCD	24.08	1	24.08	2.53	
Within	1672.33	176	9.50		
Total	2084.67	191			

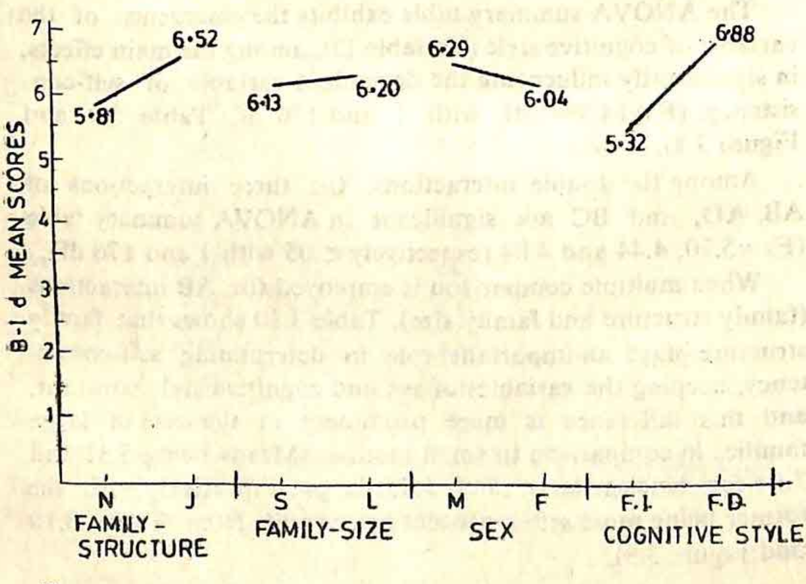


FIGURE 3.8: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct V*

TABLE 3.10: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Structure and Family Size*

Combinations	*Means*	a_1b_2	a_2b_1	a_1b_1	a_2b_2	*Shortest significant Range*		
		5.31	*5.96*	*6.31*	*7.08*		*.05**	*.01***
a_1b_2	5.31		0.65	1.00	1.77**	R_2	1.22	1.60
a_2b_1	5.96			.35	1.12	R_3	1.28	1.67
a_1b_1	6.31				.77	R_4	1.33	1.72

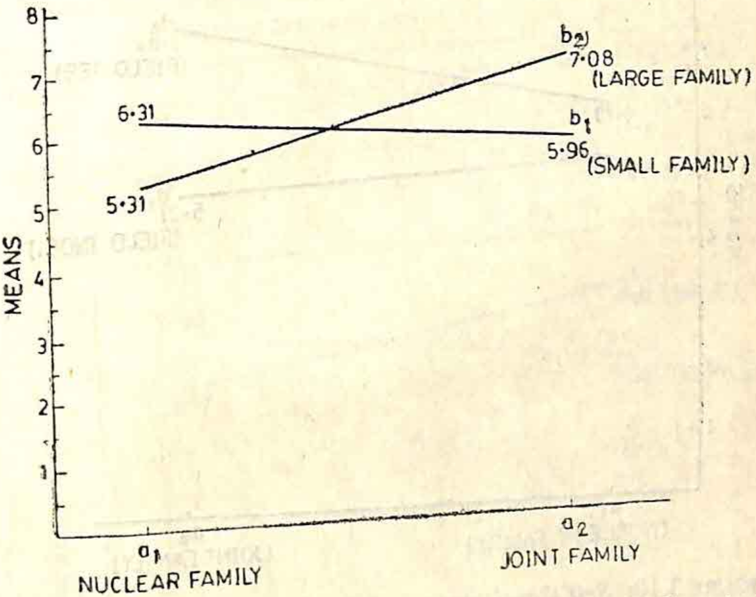


FIGURE 3.9: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Structure and Family Size*

The interaction of family structure with cognitive style (A × D), when keeping family size and sex constant, shows that field independence-dependence plays an important role in determining the self-consistency of Nuclear and Joint family structure, Table 3.11 and Figure 3.10 show that this difference is most obvious in the case of joint families (Means=5.21

TABLE 3.11: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Structure and Cognitive Style*

Combinations	*Means*	*a_2d_1* 5.21	*a_1d_1* 5.44	*a_1d_2* 6.19	*a_2d_2* 7.83	*Shortest significant Range*	.05*	.01**
a_2d_1	5.21		.23	.98	2.62**	R_2	1.22	1.60
a_1d_1	5.44			.75	2.39**	R_3	1.28	1.67
a_1d_2	6.19				1.64**	R_4	1.33	1.72

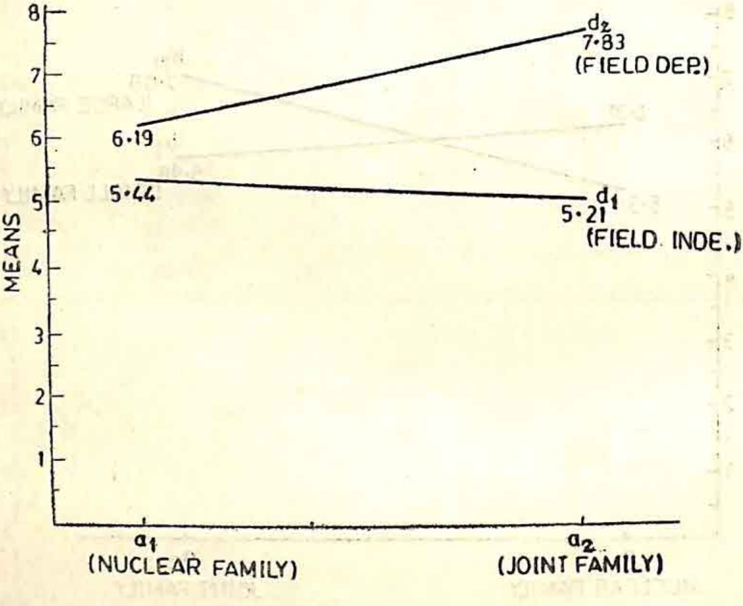


FIGURE 3.10: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Structure and Cognitive Style*

and 7.83 for joint field-independents and joint field dependents respectively), with the result of field-independents from Joint being more self-consistent in comparison to field-dependents of joint families.

The family size in combination with sex, also significantly influences the self-consistency as evident from the ANOVA

Table (F=4.84<.05 with 1 and 176 df). Table 3.12, however, shows that when family structure and cognitive style are kept constant, it is sex which is operative in large families bringing few differences (significant only at .10 and neither at .05 nor at .01) between the Means (5.58 and 6.81 respectively) for large family females and large families males with the former being more self-consistent. Figure 3.11 supports this.

Among the triple interactions, the family structure in combination with the factors of family size and cognitive style has a significant influence on self-consistency, when the factor of sex is kept constant (F=5.05<.05 with 1 and 176 df).

TABLE 3.12: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Size and Sex*

Combination		*b_2c_2*	*b_1c_1*	*b_1c_2*	*b_2c_1*		*Shortest significant Range*		
	Means	*5.58*	*5.77*	*6.50*	*6.81*		*.10**	*.05***	*.01****
b_2c_2	5.58		.19	.92	1.23*	R_2	1.02	1.22	1.60
b_1c_1	5.77			.73	1.04	R_3	1.08	1.28	1.67
b_1c_2	6.50				.31	R_4	1.12	1.33	1.72

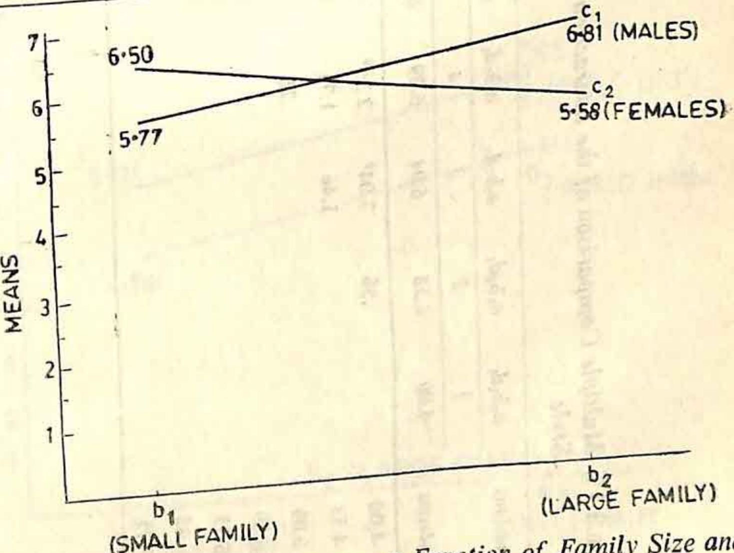


FIGURE 3.11: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family Size and Sex*

TABLE 3.13: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Structure, Family Size and Cognitive Style*

Combinations		$a_2b_1d_1$	$a_1b_2d_1$	$a_2b_2d_2$	$a_1b_1d_1$	$a_1b_1d_2$	$a_2b_2d_1$	$a_2b_2d_2$	$a_2b_1d_2$	Shortest significant Range		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
	Means	4.00	4.58	6.04	6.29	6.33	6.42	7.75	7.92	R	.05*	.01**
1.	4.00		.58	2.04*	2.29*	2.33*	2.42*	3.75**	3.92**	R_2	1.75	2.29
2.	4.58			1.46	1.71	1.75	1.84	3.17**	3.34**	R_3	1.84	2.39
3.	6.04				.25	.29	.38	1.71	1.88	R_4	1.90	2.46
4.	6.29					.04	.13	1.46	1.63	R_5	1.95	2.51
5.	6.33						.09	1.42	1.59	R_6	1.98	2.54
6.	6.42							1.33	1.50	R_7	2.01	2.58
7.	7.75								.17	R_8	2.04	2.68

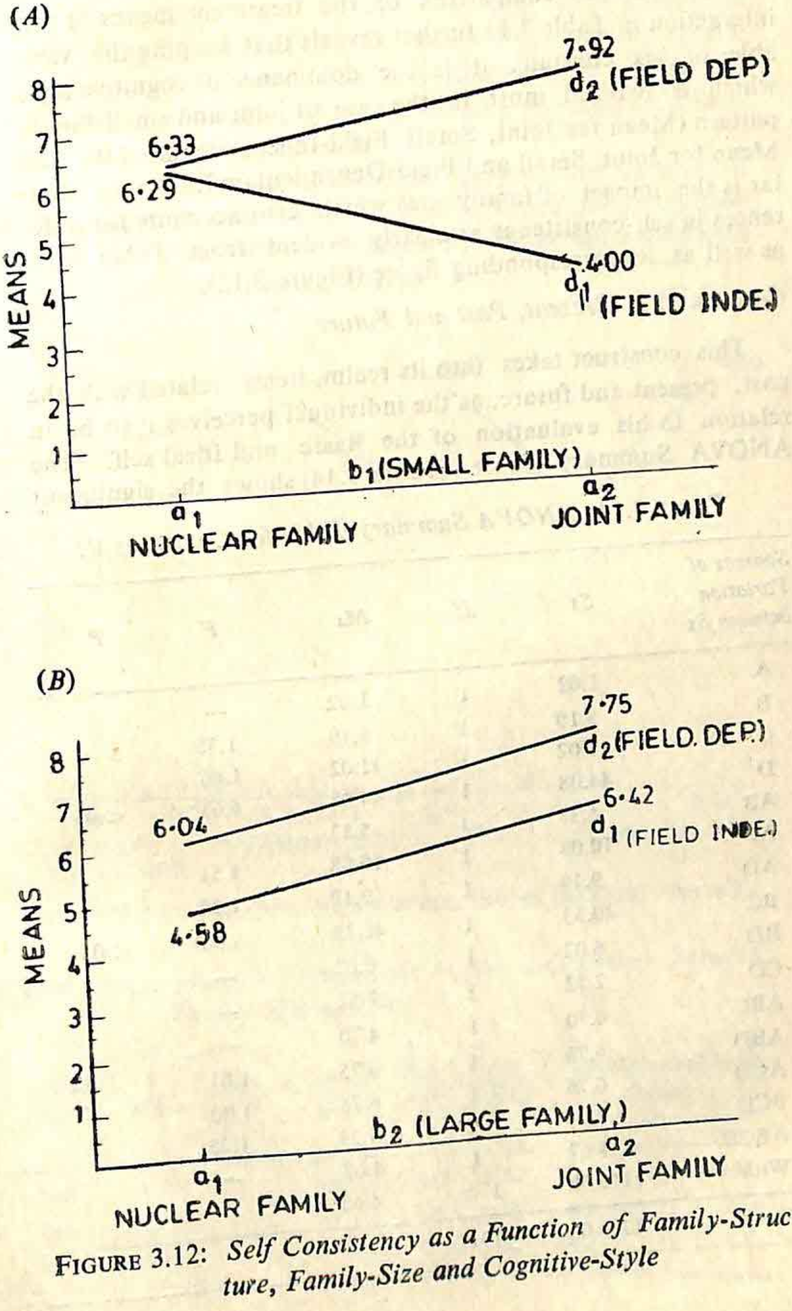


FIGURE 3.12: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Structure, Family-Size and Cognitive-Style*

The multiple comparison of the treatment means of this interaction in Table 3.13 further reveals that keeping the variable of sex constant, it is the dominance of cognitive style which is realized most in the case of joint and small family pattern (Mean for Joint, Small Field-Independents=4.00 and Mean for Joint, Small and Field-Dependents=7.92) and similar is the impact of family size which also accounts for differences in self-consistency as clearly evident from Table 3.13, as well as, its corresponding figure (Figure 3.12).

Construct VI: Present, Past and Future

This construct takes into its realm, items related with the past, present and future, as the individual perceives it to be in relation to his evaluation of the Basic and Ideal self. The ANOVA Summary Table (Table 3.14) shows the significant

TABLE 3.14: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct VI*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	1.02	1	1.02	—	
B	9.19	1	9.19	1.38	
C	11.02	1	11.02	1.66	
D	44.08	1	44.08	6.63*	<.05
AB	5.33	1	5.33	—	
AC	10.08	1	10.08	1.51	
AD	9.19	1	9.19	1.38	
BC	40.33	1	40.33	6.06*	<.05
BD	6.02	1	6.02	—	
CD	2.52	1	2.52	—	
ABC	4.70	1	4.70	—	
ABD	6.75	1	6.75	1.01	
ACD	6.76	1	6.76	1.00	
BCD	8.34	1	8.34	1.25	
ABCD	4.67	1	4.67	—	
Within	1170.00	176	6.65		
Total	1340.00	191			

effect of cognitive style on self-consistency among the main effects ($F = 6.63 < .05$ with 1 and 176 df), and the corresponding figure (Figure 3.13) also supports it by further associating Field-Independents with greater self-consistency (less B-I d mean) and vice versa.

Among the double interactions, keeping the factors of family structure and cognitive style constant, the interaction between family size and sex significantly affects self-consistency ($F=6.06 <.05$ with 1 and 176 df).

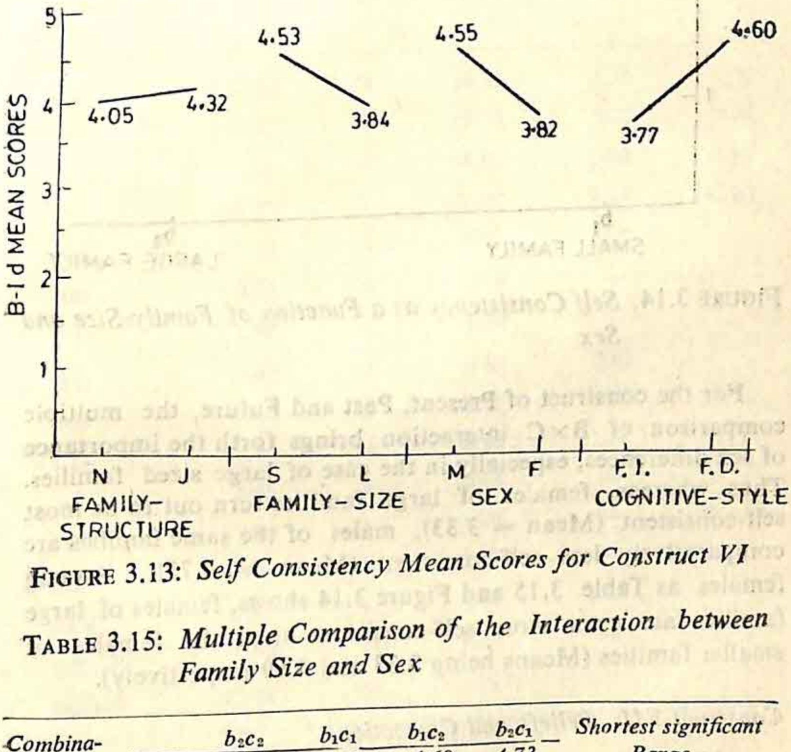


FIGURE 3.13: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct VI*

TABLE 3.15: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Size and Sex*

Combinations	*Mean*	b_2c_2	b_1c_1	b_1c_2	b_2c_1	*Shortest significant Range*		
		3.33	4.25	4.69	4.73		$.05_2$	.01**
b_2c_2	3.33		0.92	1.36*	1.40*	R_2	1.01	1.35
b_1c_1	4.25			.44	.48	R_3	1.08	1.40
b_1c_2	4.69				.04	R_4	1.12	1.44

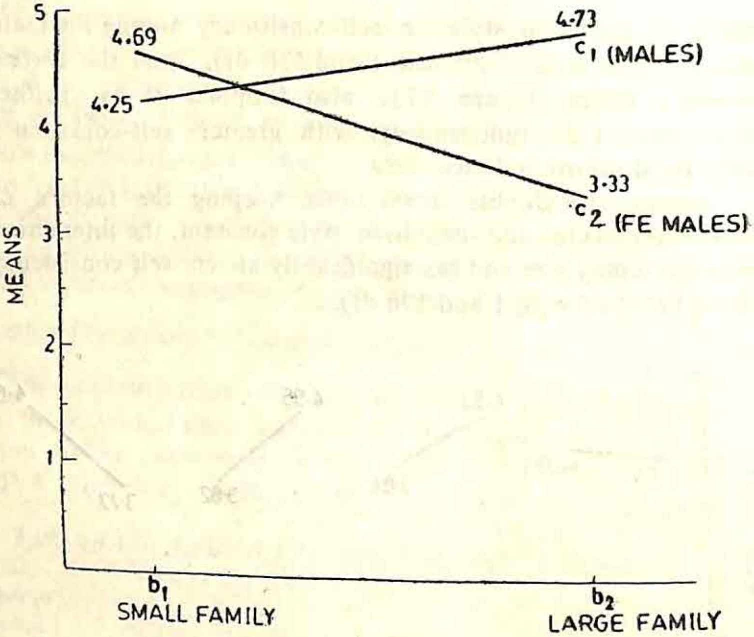


FIGURE 3.14: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Size and Sex*

For the construct of Present, Past and Future, the multiple comparison of B×C interaction brings forth the importance of sex differences, especially in the case of large sized families. Thus whereas, females of large families turn out to be most self-consistent (Mean = 3.33), males of the same families are comparatively less self-consistent (Mean = 4.73). Among females as Table 3.15 and Figure 3.14 shows, females of large families are even more self-consistent than the females of smaller families (Means being 3.33 and 4.69 respectively).

Construct VII: Beliefs and Convictions

ANOVA Summary Table for this construct brings out interesting results. All four independent effects of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style significantly influence self-consistency for this particular construct. (Fs being 5.38, 4.02, 5.02 and 6.14 respectively significant at $< .05$ with 1 and 176 df). The corresponding figure (Figure 3.15) showing the Basic-Ideal d means also supports the obtained findings in Table 3.16.

These variables however, when in the double, triple and quartiple interactions, do not influence self-consistency significantly for this construct.

TABLE 3.16: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct VII*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	18.13	1	18.13	5.38	<.05
B	13.55	1	13.55	4.02	<.05
C	16.93	1	16.93	5.02	<·05
D	20.68	1	20.68	6.14	<.05
AB	8.76	1	8.76	2.60	
AC	0.04	1	0.04	—	
AD	1.50	1	1.50	—	
BC	9.62	1	9.62	2.85	
BD	5.67	1	5.67	1.68	
CD	0.87	1	0.87	—	
ABC	0.05	1	0.05	—	
ABD	1.88	1	1.88	—	
ACD	2.77	1	2.77	—	
BCD	5.68	1	5.68	1.68	
ABCD	1.50	1	1.50	—	
Within	593.58	176	3.37		
Total	701.21	191			

Construct VIII: Feelings of Shame and Guilt

It is the feelings of shame and guilt, that is, of either being in the wrong or being obsessed by socially disapproved desires,

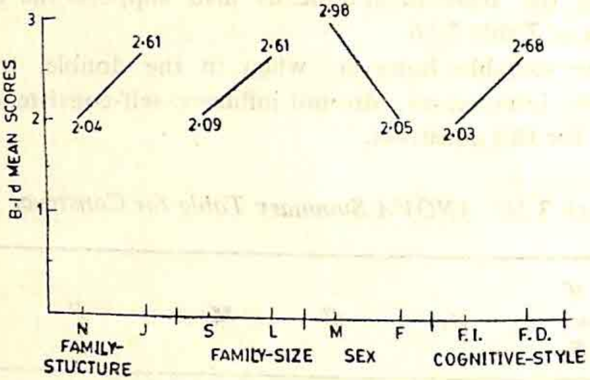


FIGURE 3.15: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct VII*

which are responsible for the overestimation and underestimation of the self in one's eyes. Construct VIII deals with such items in relation to Basic and Ideal self-evaluation.

ANOVA Summary Table (Table 3.17) for construct VIII once again depicts among the main effects, the dominant role of cognitive style in influencing self-consistency significantly ($F = 7.51 < .01$ with 1 and 176 df). Figure 3.16 also supports the results (Means = 4.67 and 5.80 for field independents and dependents respectively).

Among the double interactions, it is the interaction of the family size with sex which accounts for differences in self-consistency ($F = 20.71 < .01$ with 1 and 176 df). The multiple comparison of the treatments means for this interaction bring forth the importance of both family size and sex. However Table 3.18 and Figure 3.17 clearly suggest that, whereas family size determines self-consistency most strongly in females (with females of large family being more self-consistent than females of small family, Means = 4.08 and 6.25 respectively), the sex differences operate significantly both in small and large families.

TABLE 3.17: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct-VIII*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	1.02	1	1.02	—	
B	9.19	1	9.19	1.33	
C	.08	1	.08	—	
D	52.08	1	52.08	7.51**	<.01
AB	24.08	1	24.08	3.47	
AC	22.69	1	22.66	3.27	
AD	1.69	1	1.69	—	
BC	143.52	1	143.52	20.71**	<.01
BD	1.02	1	1.02	—	
CD	18.76	1	18.76	2.71	
ABC	12.00	1	12.00	1.73	
ABD	2.09	1	2.09	—	
ACD	11.01	1	11.01	1.59	
BCD	13.02	1	13.02	1.88	
ABCD	123.67	1	123.67	17.85**	<.01
Within	1220.33	176	6.93		
Total	1656.25	191			

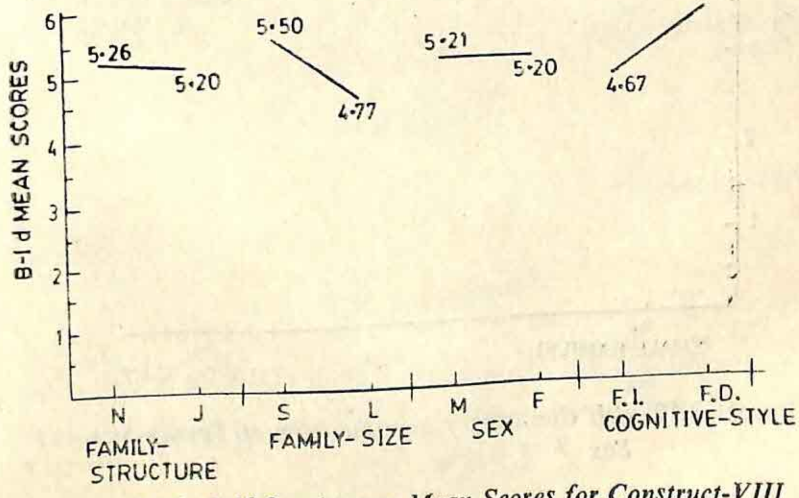


FIGURE 3.16: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct-VIII*

TABLE 3.18: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Size and Sex*

Combinations	*Means*	b_2c_2	b_1c_1	b_2c_1	b_1c_2	*Shortest significant Range*		
		4.08	*4.56*	*5.85*	*6.25*		*.05**	*.01***
b_2c_2	4.08		.48	1.77**	2.17**	R_2	1.03	1.38
b_1c_1	4.56			1.29*	1.69**	R_3	1.11	1.44
b_2c_1	6.25				.40	R_4	1.15	1.48

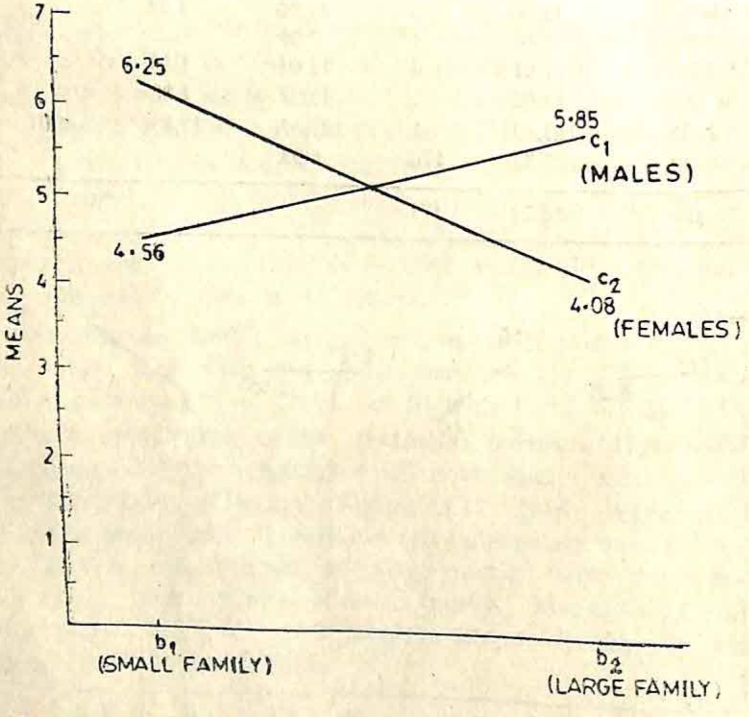


FIGURE 3.17: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Size and Sex*

Finally, the quartiple interaction of family structure with family size, sex and cognitive style when merged together, has a significant influence on self consistency of this construct (F = 17.85 < .01 with 1 and 176 df). When analyzed by multiple comparison, out of 120 combined effects of the 16

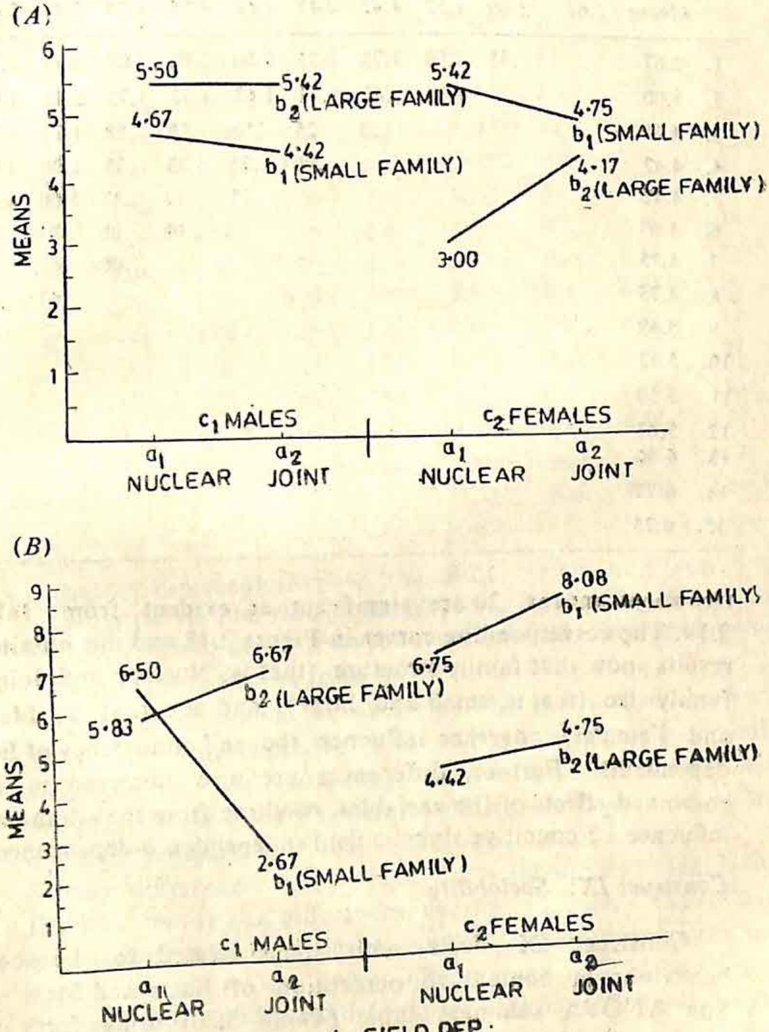


FIGURE 3.18: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family Structure, Family Size, Sex and Cognitive-Style*

TABLE 3.19: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between*

Combinations	a_2b_1 c_1d_2	a_1b_2 c_2d_1	a_2b_2 c_2d_1	a_2b_1 c_1d_1	a_1b_2 c_2d_2	a_1b_1 c_1d_1	a_2b_1 c_2d_1	a_2b_2 c_2d_2	a_1b_1 c_2d_1	a_2b_2 c_1d_1
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
Means	*2.67*	*3.00*	*4.17*	*4.42*	*4.42*	*4.67*	*4.75*	*4.75*	*5.42*	*5.42*
1. 2.67		.33	1.50	1.75	1.75	2.00	2.08	2.08	2.75	2.75
2. 3.00			1.17	1.42	1.42	1.67	1.75	1.75	2.42	2.42
3. 4.17				.25	.25	.50	.58	.58	1.25	1.25
4. 4.42					.00	.25	.33	.33	1.00	1.00
5. 4.42						.25	.33	.33	1.00	1.00
6. 4.67							.08	.08	.75	.75
7. 4.75								.00	.67	.67
8. 4.75									.67	.67
9. 5.42										.00
10. 5.42										
11. 5.50										
12. 5.83										
13. 6.50										
14. 6.75										
15. 6.75										

treatment means, 20 are significant as evident from Table 3.19. The corresponding curves in Figure 3.18 and the obtained results show that family structure (that is, Nuclear and Joint), family size (that is, small and large), and sex (that is, Males and Females), together influence the self consistency of field dependents. Further, differences are also observed in the combined effects of the variables, resulting from the dominant influence of cognitive style or field independence-dependence.

Construct IX: Sociability

Construct IX deals with items related to the social behaviour in context to perception of Basic and Ideal self. The ANOVA summary table (Table 3.20) brings forth the dominance of cognitive style among all main effects in relation to self-consistency ($F=4.31 < .05$ with 1 and 176 df). The

Family Structure, Family Size, Sex and Cognitive Style

a_1b_2 c_1d_1	a_1b_2 c_1d_2	a_1b_1 c_1d_2	a_2b_2 c_1d_2	a_1b_1 c_2d_2	a_2b_1 c_2d_2	*Shortest significant Range*		
11	*12*	*13*	*14*	*15*	*16*			
5.50	*5.83*	*6.50*	*6.67*	*6.75*	*8.08*		*.05**	*.01***
2.83	3.16*	3.83**	4.00**	4.08**	5.41**	R_2	2.11	2.77
2.50	2.83*	3.50**	3.67**	3.75**	5.08**	R_3	2.22	2.88
1.33	1.66	2.33	2.50	2.58*	3.91**	R_4	2.29	2.96
1.08	1.41	2.08	2.25	2.33	3.66**	R_5	2.34	3.02
1.08	1.41	2.08	2.25	2.33	3.66**	R_6	2.40	3.07
.83	1.16	1.83	2.00	2.08	3.41**	R_7	2.43	3.11
.75	1.08	1.75	1.92	2.00	3.33**	R_8	2.46	3.14
.75	1.08	1.75	1.92	2.00	3.33**	R_9	2.48	3.17
.08	.41	1.08	1.25	1.33	2.66*	R_{10}	2.50	3.20
.08	.41	1.08	1.25	1.33	2.66*	R_{11}	2.52	3.22
	.33	1.00	1.17	1.25	2.58*	R_{12}	2.54	3.24
		.67	.08	.92	2.25	R_{13}	2.56	3.26
			.17	.25	1.58	R_{14}	2.57	3.27
				.08	1.41	R_{15}	2.58	3.29
					1.33	R_{16}	2.59	3.30

schematic representation of the B-Id means in Figure 3.19 supports the results, with field independents yielding the mean of 3.35 and field-dependents the mean of 4.08, thus enhancing self-consistency for the former.

Among the double interactions, the interaction between family size and cognitive style when merged, significantly influences the self-consistency. (F=6.74 < .05 with 1 and 176 df). When family structure and sex are kept constant the multiple comparison table (Table 3.21) shows that out of 6 mean differences, only three are statistically significant. Further, family size differences operate in field dependents more significantly. In large families, field-independents and dependents show noticeable difference in self-consistency, as compared to small families where differences in self-consistency in field-independents and dependents seem to be negligible.

TABLE 3.20: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct-IX*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	7.52	1	7.52	1.20	
B	3.52	1	3.52	—	
C	1.69	1	1.69	—	
D	27.00	1	27.00	4.31*	<.05
AB	10.09	1	10.09	1.61	
AC	4.08	1	4.08	—	
AD	1.02	1	1.02	—	
BC	20.08	1	10.08	1.61	
BD	12.19	1	12.19	6.74*	<.05
CD	4.69	1	4.69	—	
ABC	.19	1	.19	—	
ABD	0.00	1	0.00	—	
ACD	18.75	1	18.75	2.99	
BCD	6.75	1	6.75	1.08	
ABCD	2.52	1	2.59	—	
Within	1101.83	176	6.26		
Total	1241.92	191			

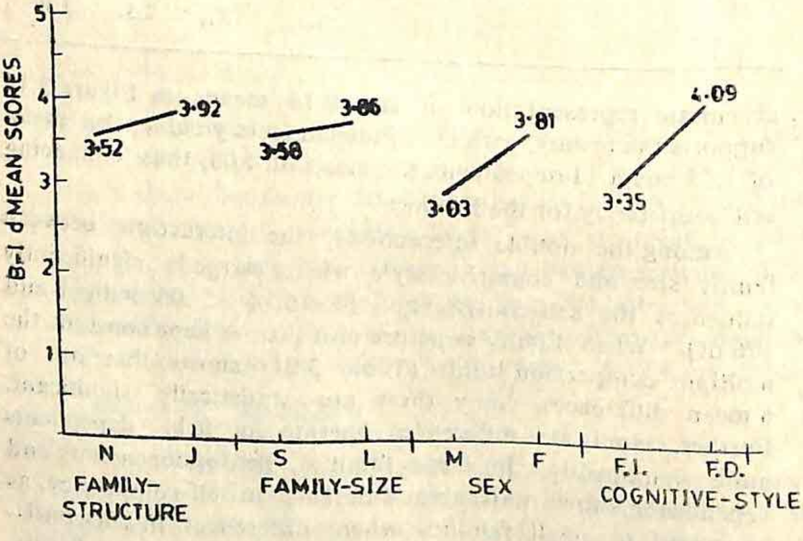


FIGURE 3.19: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct-IX*

The field-independents of large family are most consistent in comparison to field-dependents yielding highest mean score.) Table 3.21 Figure 3.20).

TABLE 3.21: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction Between Family Size and Cognitive Style*

Combnia-tions	*Means*	b_2d_1	b_1d_2	b_1d_1	b_2d_2	*Shortest significant Range*		
		3.02	*3.50*	*5.56*	*4.71*		*.95**	*.01***
b_2d_1	3.02		.48	.54	1.69**	R_2	1.02	1.32
b_1d_2	3.50			.06	1.21*	R_3	1.08	1.40
b_1d_1	3.56				1.15*	R_4	1.12	1.44

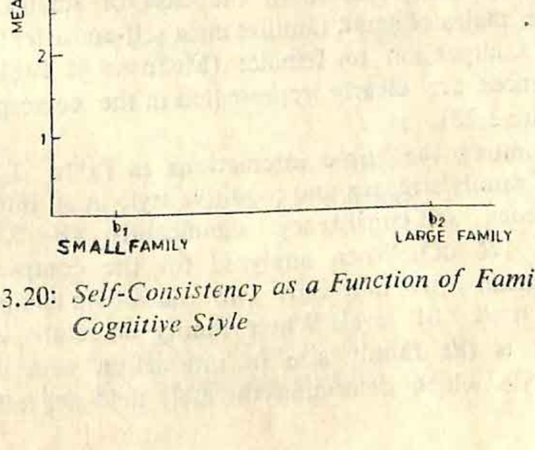


FIGURE 3.20: *Self-Consistency as a Function of Family-Size and Cognitive Style*

Construct X: Emotional Maturity

The ANOVA summary table (Table 3.22) shows the absence of any significant single effect of the independent variables on self-consistency, which is further supported by the corresponding figure (Figure 3.21).

Among the double interactions, however, we come across the family structure and family size interaction which becomes highly significant in its impact on self-consistency when merged together ($F=9.57 < .01$ with 1 and 176 df). The multiple comparison by Duncan's method brings forward two significant mean differences among six. It is the variation in family structure, which accounts for self-consistency differences in large families, whereas it is the difference in family size which reasons out the significant differences in joint families, as also evident from Table 3.23 and Figure 3.22. Further, the variables of family size and sex, though having insignificant and negligible independent impact on self consistency prove significant, when in a combination with each other ($F=8.28 < .01$ with 1 and 176 df) as in ANOVA summary table (Table 3.22). Further analysis by multiple comparison brings forth only two comparisons of the treatment means as significant out of a total six. It is the difference in family size which account for significant differences in self-consistency of males, making males of the small family more consistent than males of the large family (Means=3.73 and 5.00 respectively). On the other hand, it is the sex differences which account for self-consistency changes more in the case of small families, making the males of small families most self-consistent (Mean =3.73) in comparison to females (Mean=5.46 Table 3.24). The differences are clearly represented in the corresponding figure (Figure 3.23).

Lastly among the triple interactions in Table 3.22, the variables of family size, sex and cognitive style in an interactive effect influence self consistency significantly ($F=5.47 < .05$ with 1 and 176 df). When analyzed for the comparison of treatment means, we find only two out of six comparisons significant at $< .01$ level. When family structure is kept constant, it is the family size in interaction with sex and cognitive style which determines the male field dependents of the small family as being more self-consistent, in comparison to male field dependents of large families (Means = 3.25 and 5.58 respectively). Further Table 3.25 shows that the sex differences operate significantly, bringing changes in self-consistency of field-dependents of small families with the result of male field-dependents of small families being more self consistent in comparison to female field dependents of small family (Means = 3.25 and 5.92 respectively) as also clear from Figure 3.24).

TABLE 3.22: *ANOVA Summary Table for Construct X*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	2.30	1	2.30	—	
B	1.17	1	1.17	—	
C	18.13	1	18.13	2.52	
D	0.88	1	0.88	—	
AB	68.88	1	68.88	9.57**	<.01
AC	3.79	1	3.79	—	
AD	0.42	1	0.42	—	
BC	59.63	1	59.63	8.28**	<.01
BD	1.17	1	1.17	—	
CD	0.05	1	0.05	—	
ABC	7.14	1	7.14	—	
ABD	0.51	1	0.51	—	
ACD	0.13	1	0.13	—	
BCD	39.42	1	39.42	5.47**	<.01
ABCD	5.13	1	5.13	—	
Within	1267.58	176	7.20		
Total	1476.33	191			

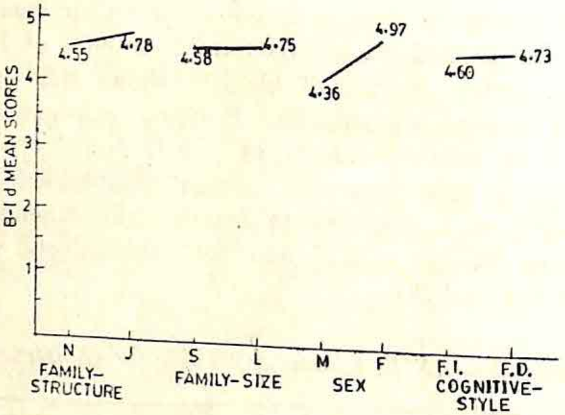


FIGURE 3.21: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Construct-X*

TABLE 3.23: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Structure and Family Size*

Combinations	*Means*	a_1b_2 *4.04*	a_2b_1 *4.10*	a_1b_1 *5.08*	a_2b_2 *5.46*	*Shortest significant Range*		
							*.05**	*.01***
a_1b_2	4.04		.06	1.04	1.42*	R_2	1.08	1.42
a_2b_1	4.10			.98	1.36*	R_3	1.14	1.48
a_1b_1	5.08				.38	R_4	1.18	1.52

Total Self-concept and Basic-Ideal Discrepancy (d)

After reviewing the analysis of the 'd' data for all the ten constructs of the self-concept scale, it is desirable to study the analysis of d of Basic-Ideal self concept over all ten constructs, or in other words the Basic-Ideal discrepancy of the total self concept (Total d).

Table 3.26, the ANOVA summary table for total Basic-Ideal disparity on the self concept scale reveals the dominance of cognitive style as having a significant influence on self-consistency ($F=9.70<.01$ with 1 and 176 df). The corresponding

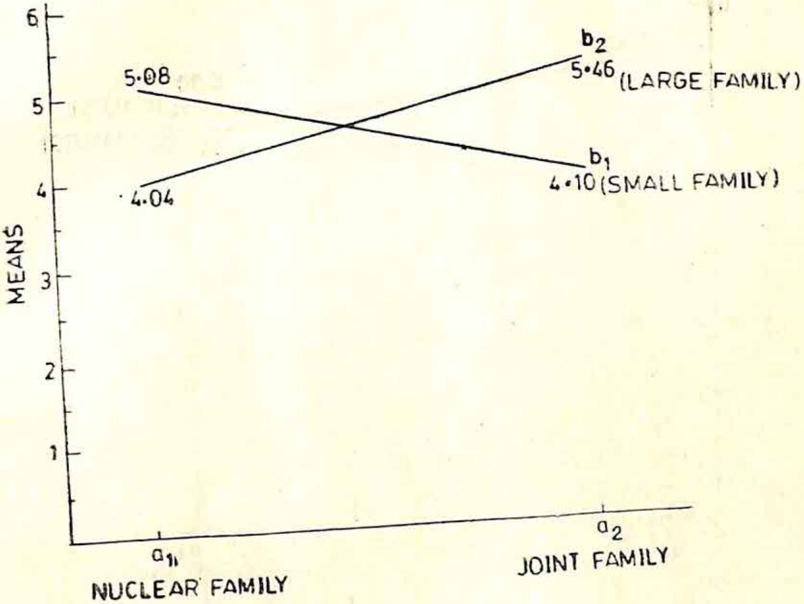


FIGURE 3.22: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Structure and Family Size*

TABLE 3.24: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Size and Sex*

Combinations	*Means*	b_1c_1 *3.73*	b_2c_2 *4.50*	b_2c_1 *5.00*	b_1c_2 *5.46*		*Shortest significant Range* .05*	.01**
b_1c_1	3.73		.77	1.27*	1.73**	R_2	1.08	1.42
b_2c_2	4.50			.50	.96	R_3	1.14	1.48
b_2c_1	5.00				.46	R_4	1.18	1.52

figure (Figure 3.25) also supports the findings, suggesting a higher self-consistency for the field-independents in comparison to field-dependents.

Among the double interactions, first we come across the combination of family structure and family size which is

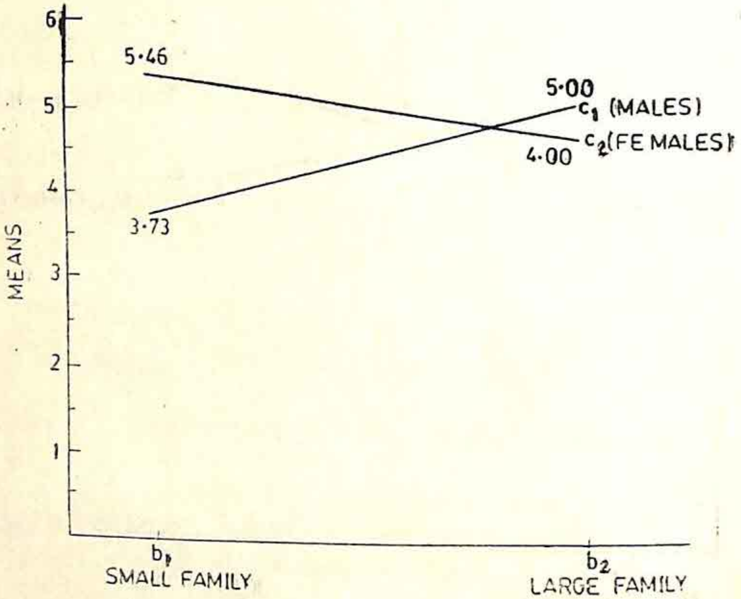


FIGURE 3.23: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Size and Sex*

insignificant with reference to its single effects on self-consistency. However, it is significant when merged together ($F=5.08 < .05$ with 1 and 176 df). When multiple comparison is applied to analyze this interactive effect we find that keeping the factors of sex and cognitive style constant, family size significantly influences the Nuclear family structure more than the Joint family (Mean for Nuclear large family=42.02, and Mean for Nuclear small family=49.33 Table 3.27). Where **B-I** d is concerned. Ss of large family of nuclear structure are more self-consistent, as also obvious from figure 3.26.

Further, the interaction between family size and sex is also found to have a dominant role in determining differences in self-consistency of these groups ($F=16.15 < .01$ with 1 and 176 df in Table 3.26). Here in this particular interaction, it is the variable of sex which account for significant differences in **B-I** d large family, as well as, small family. Males are more influenced by changes in family size than females, leading to change in

TABLE 3.25: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Size, Sex and Cognitive Style*

Combinations	$b_1c_1d_2$ 1	$b_1c_1d_1$ 2	$b_2c_2d_2$ 3	$b_2c_1d_1$ 4	$b_2c_2d_1$ 5	$b_1c_2d_1$ 6	$b_2c_1d_2$ 7	$b_1c_2d_2$ 8	Shortest significant Range		
										.05*	.01**
Means	3 25	4.21	4.21	4.42	4.79	5.00	5.58	5.92			
1. 3.25		.96	.96	1.17	1.54	1.75*	2.33**	2.67**	R_2	1.52	2.00
2. 4.21			.00	.21	.58	.79	1.37	1.71	R_3	1.60	2.09
3. 4.21				.21	.58	.79	1.37	1.71	R_4	1.66	2.14
4. 4.42					.37	.58	1.16	1.50	R_5	1.70	2.19
5. 4.79						.21	.79	1.13	R_6	1.73	2.22
6. 5.00							.58	.92	R_7	1.76	2.25
7. 5.58								.34	R_8	1.78	2.27

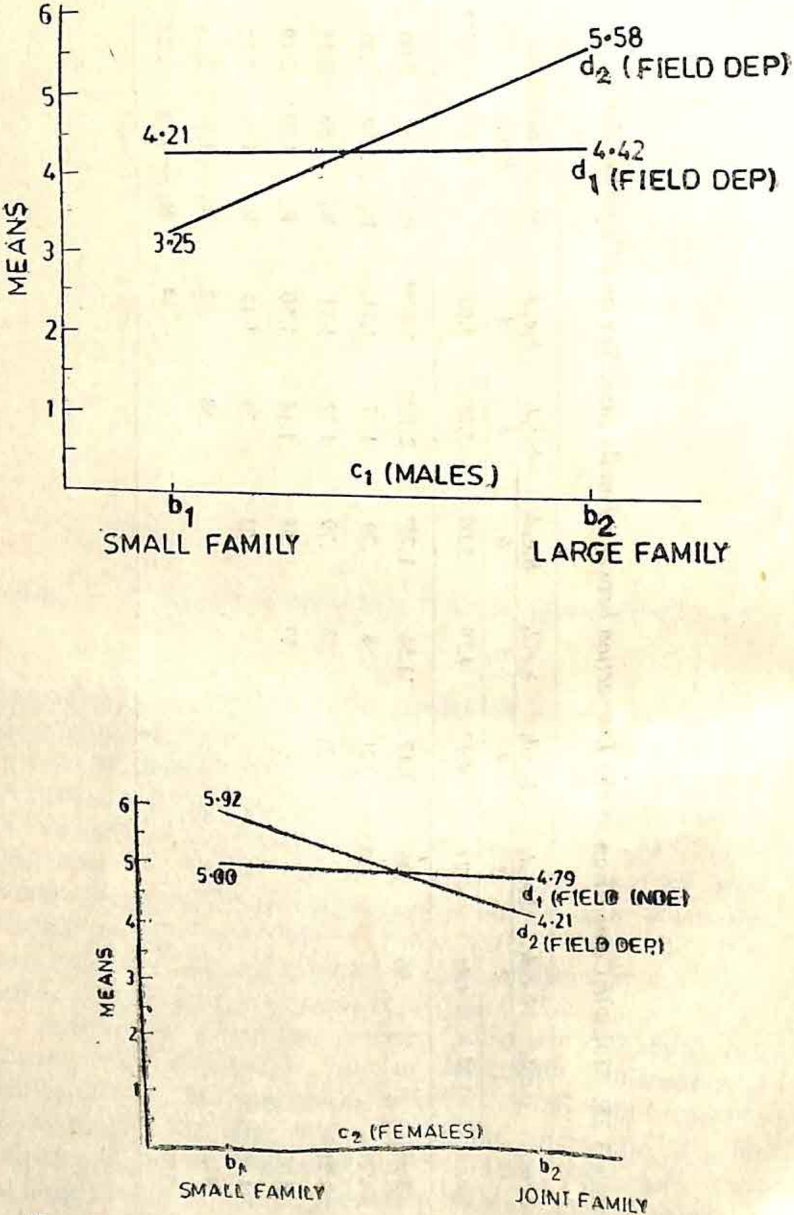


FIGURE 3.24: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Size, Sex and Cognitive Style*

TABLE 3.26: *ANOVA Summary Table for Total Self-Concept Scale*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	270.75	1	270.75	—	
B	165.02	1	165.02	—	
C	13.02	1	13.02	—	
D	2730.08	1	2730.08	9.70**	<.01
AB	1430.09	1	1430.09	5.08*	<.05
AC	21.34	1	21.34	—	
AD	31.69	1	31.69	—	
BC	4543.52	1	4543.52	16.15**	<.01
BD	0.34	1	0.34	—	
CD	320.24	1	320.34	1.14	
ABC	90.74	1	90.74	—	
ABD	553.51	1	553.51	1.97	
ACD	760.01	1	760.01	2.70	
BCD	208.33	1	208.33	—	
ABCD	35 03	1	35.03	—	
Within	49526.67	176	281.40		
Total	60700.48	191			

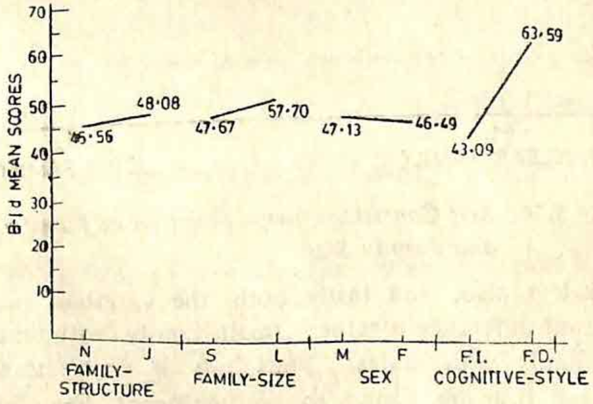


FIGURE 3.25: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Total Self-Concept Scale*

TABLE 3.27: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Structure and Family Size*

Combinations	*Means*	*a_1b_2*	*a_2b_1*	*a_1b_1*	*a_2b_2*	*Shortest significant Range*		
		42.02	*46.25*	*49.33*	*49.85*		*.05**	*.01***
a_1b_2	42.02		4.23	7.31*	7.83*	R_2	6.71	8.82
a_2b_1	46.25			3.08	3.60	R_3	7.06	9.19
a_1b_1	49.33				.52	R_4	7.30	9.44

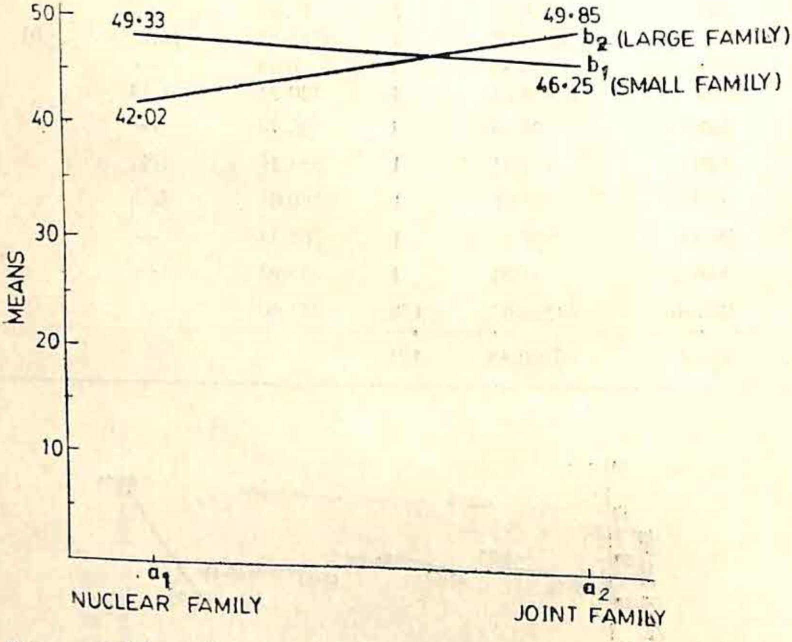


FIGURE 3.26: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Structure and Family Size*

their B-I d also, and lastly both the variables incorporate significant difference together (small family with females and large family with males). Thus, out of six treatment means compared, four are found to be significant. Females of large families are most self consistent (Table 3.28).

TABLE 3.28: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Family Size and Sex*

Combinations	*Means*	b_2c_2 40.81	b_1c_1 43.19	b_2c_1 51.06	b_1c_2 52.40	*Shortest significant Range*	*.05**	*.01***
b_2c_2	40.81		2.38	10.25**	11.59**	R_2	6.71	8.82
b_1c_1	43.19			7.87*	9.21**	R_3	7.06	9.19
b_2c_1	51.06				1.36	R_4	7.30	9.44

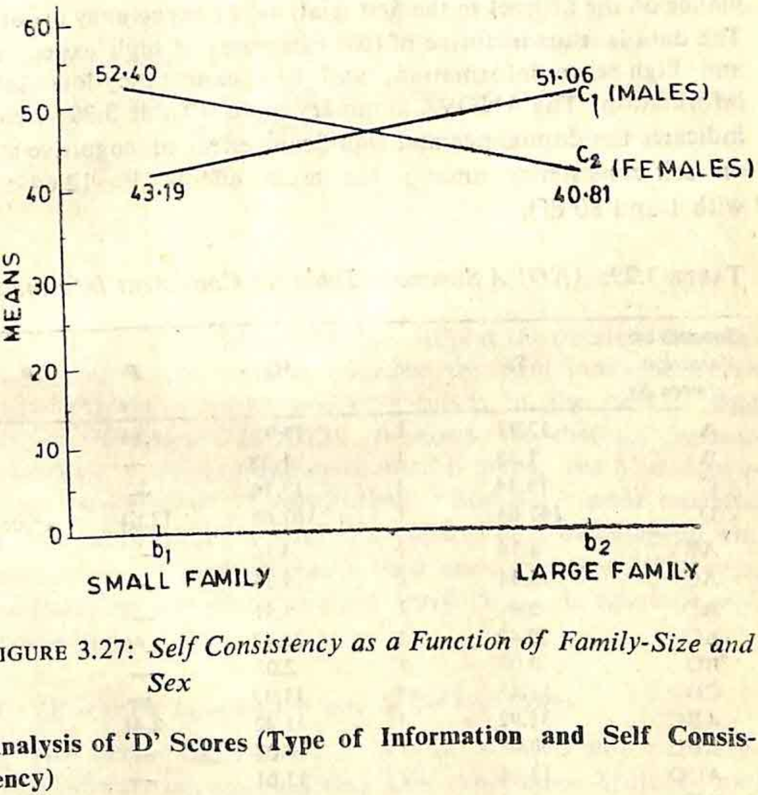


FIGURE 3.27: *Self Consistency as a Function of Family-Size and Sex*

Analysis of 'D' Scores (Type of Information and Self Consistency)

The analysis of the self consistency data as a function of information or D data is dealt with in four sections. The first deals with self consistency in terms of performance change when information consistent to expectancy aroused is given.

The second takes into account the D data of subjects who have been exposed to information discrepant to their performance expectancy, while the third section takes into account the D data of all the Ss in terms of change in performance over both consistent and discrepant information. Finally, the fourth section briefly deals with changes in performance as a result of high and low expectancy.

A. Consistent Information and Self Consistency

The consistent information takes into account the D data of these subjects who were given information (after the performance on the fifth set in the first trial) as per expectancy aroused. The data is thus inclusive of two categories of high expectancy and high score information, and low expectancy-low score information. The ANOVA summary table (Table 3.29) clearly indicates the dominance and significant effect of cognitive style on self consistency among the main effects (F=12.64<.01 with 1 and 80 df).

TABLE 3.29: *ANOVA Summary Table for Consistent Information*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	33.93	1	33.93	2.56	
B	1.38	1	1.38	—	
C	13.14	1	13.14	—	
D	167.64	1	167.64	12.64	<.01
AB	4.16	1	4.16	—	
AC	5.34	1	5.34	—	
AD	5.41	1	5.41	—	
BC	22.42	1	22.42	1.69	
BD	2.07	1	2.07	—	
CD	11.47	1	11.47	—	
ABC	31.92	1	31.92	2.41	
ABD	8.07	1	8.07	—	
ACD	13.01	1	13.01	—	
BCD	4.62	1	4.62	—	
ABCD	2.18	1	2.18	—	
Within	1060.9	80	13.26	—	
Total	1395.71	95			

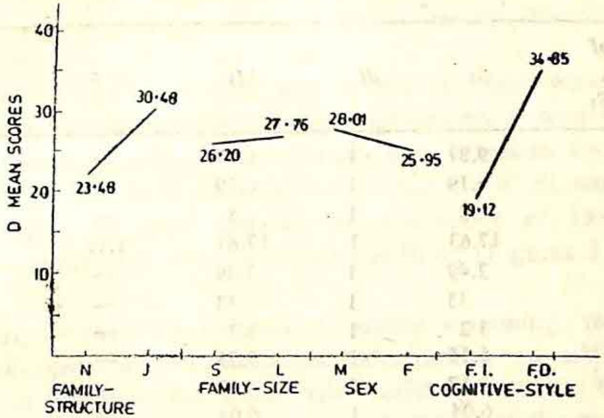


FIGURE 3.28: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Consistent Information*

The means in Figure 3.28 also support the obtained findings indicating a higher self-consistency for field independents (a low D mean of 19.12 which increases in the case of field dependents D mean of 34.85). It shows that when information consistent to the expectancy aroused is given, the field dependents show a lot of change in their responses on the repeated trial (from the original trial) as compared to field independents, bringing a significant change in their self-consistency. However, the interactional effects remain insignificant in affecting self-consistency.

B. Discrepant Information and Self-Consistency

This section deals with the data of subjects who were provided information contradicting the expectancy aroused and hence, includes the groups of High Expectancy-Low information and Low Expectancy-High information. The ANOVA summary table (Table 3.30) for discrepant information shows that none of the effects, single as well as,

TABLE 3.30: *ANOVA Summary Table for Discrepant Information*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	9.87	1	9.87	—	
B	6.19	1	6.19	—	
C	.8	1	.8	—	
D	17.63	1	17.63	1.16	
AB	2.49	1	2.49	—	
AC	.33	1	.33	—	
AD	3.2	1	3.2	—	
BC	5.55	1	5.55	—	
BD	.17	1	.17	—	
CD	6.04	1	6.04	—	
ABC	2.06	1	2.06	—	
ABD	3.8	1	3.8	—	
ACD	40.36	1	40.36	2.65	
BCD	8.36	1	8.36	—	
ABCD	.07	1	.07	—	
Within	1220.17	80	15.25		
Total	1327.03	95			

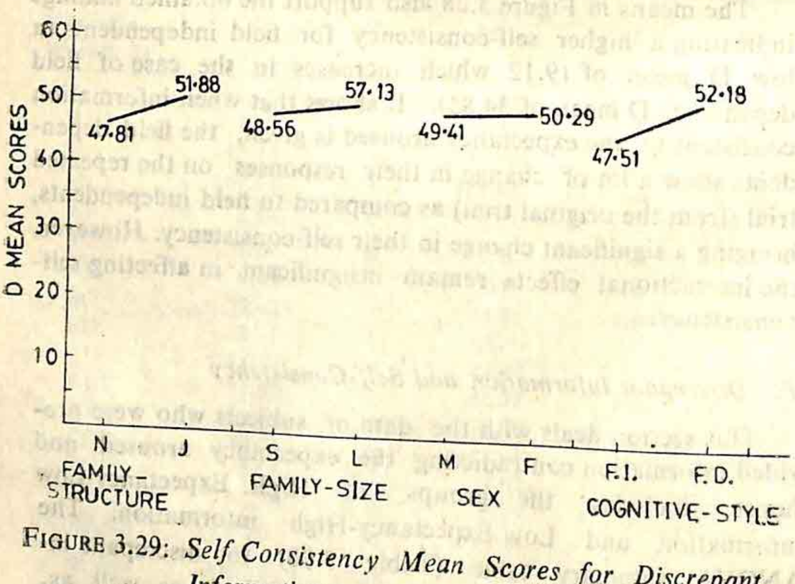


FIGURE 3.29: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Discrepant Information*

interactive hold significant relevance, with regard to self-consistency, the Ms between squares being less than the Ms within.

However, an interesting fact comes to light when the D means for discrepant information condition are compared with the D means of consistent information. Whereas the lowest and highest means in discrepant condition are 47.81 and 52.18 respectively, the same reduces to the range of 19.12 and 34.85 respectively in the consistent condition (Figures 3.28 and 3.29).

Thus, it becomes imperative before reviewing the joint effect of consistent and discrepant information on self-consistency, to evaluate the differences existing between the self-consistency in terms of performance change) of the consistent and discrepant condition. T test was applied for this purpose and the findings as shown in Table 3.31 suggest that there is a significant difference between the self-consistency of the two conditions. Further, it clearly reveals the self-consistency as being higher for consistent information condition (Mean =26.98) than the discrepant condition (Mean = 49.85). This point to the greater change in the responses of the repeated fifth set of problems when they were provided information discrepant to the expectancy aroused rather than consistent information.

TABLE 3.31: *Significance of Difference between the two 'D' Means of Consistent and Discrepant Information*

M. Con.	*M. Dis.*	*SD.*	*SSD.*	*t*	*Significance level*
26.98	49.85	9.33	3.26	7.01	<.01

M. Con.=Mean consistent condition.
M. Dis.=Mean discrepant condition.

It is desirable now to study the merged effect of consistent and discrepant information or in other words, information as a whole influencing change in performance of self consistency.

C. *Information (Consistent and Discrepant) and Self Consistency*

Table 3.32 shows once again, the dominating impact of cognitive style or field dependence-independence on self-consistency, among the single main effects ($F=8.01<.01$ with 1 and 176 df). The corresponding figure (Figure 3.30) supports the same. Field-independents scores reflect higher self-consistency (Mean=66.63) than their counterpart of field-dependents (Mean=87.03). The interactive effects however, remain insignificant.

TABLE 3.32: *ANOVA Summary Table for Self Consistency (Change in Performance as a Function of Information Consistent and Discrepant)*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	40.92	1	40.92	2.36	
B	5.70	1	5.70	—	
C	0.47	1	0.47	—	
D	138.67	1	138.67	8.01**	<.01
AB	6.97	1	6.97	—	
AC	1.38	1	1.38	—	
AD	8.82	1	8.82	—	
BC	27.19	1	27.19	1.57	
BD	0.01	1	0.01	—	
CD	5.05	1	5.05	—	
ABC	50.34	1	50.34	2.91	
ABD	12.87	1	12.87	—	
ACD	11.05	1	11.05	—	
BCD	11.32	1	11.32		
ABCD	1.13	1	1.13	—	
Within	3048.22	176	17.32	—	
Total	3370.11	191			

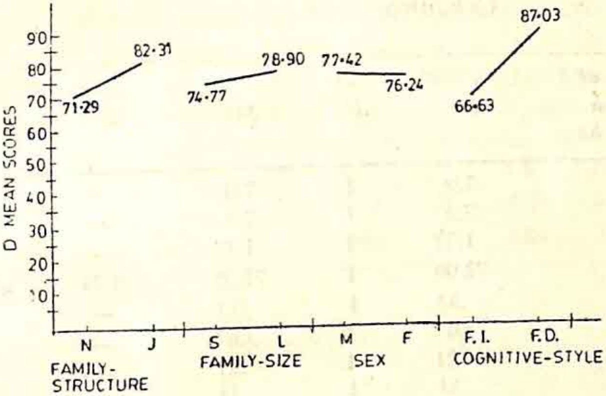


FIGURE 3.30: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Total Information*

D. *Expectancy and Self-Consistency*

High Expectancy: The high expectancy refers to the condition when, after the fourth set of cards, the subjects were given a very good yet false evaluation of their performance arousing a high expectancy level in them to do better in the fifth set of cards. This group comprises of High-High and High-Low categories.

ANOVA summary table (Table 3.33) for high expectancy shows significant effect of variable D, that is, field-dependence-independence on self-consistency ($F=4.74 < .05$ with 1 and 80 df). Among the double interactions, it is the interaction between sex and cognitive style, which is significant ($F=6.16 < .05$ with 1 and 80 df). Table 3.34 for the multiple cumparison of this interaction shows that it is the variable of cognitive style which significantly influences the self-consistency of females though, this difference is negligible in the case of males as also supported by Figure 3.32.

TABLE 3.33: *ANOVA Summary Table for High Expectancy Condition*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	7.0	1	7.0	—	
B	7.5	1	7.5	—	
C	1.77	1	1.77	—	
D	72.06	1	72.06	4.74	<.05
AB	.33	1	.33	—	
AC	3.67	1	3.67	—	
AD	.21	1	.21	—	
BC	.11	1	.11	—	
BD	.06	1	.06	—	
CD	93.59	1	93.59	6.16	<.05
ABC	8.43	1	8.43	—	
ABD	.59	1	.59	—	
ACD	21.6	1	21.6	1.4	
BCD	.3	1	.3	—	
ABCD	2.63	1	2.63	—	
Within	1265.54	80	15.19		
Total	1433.38	95			

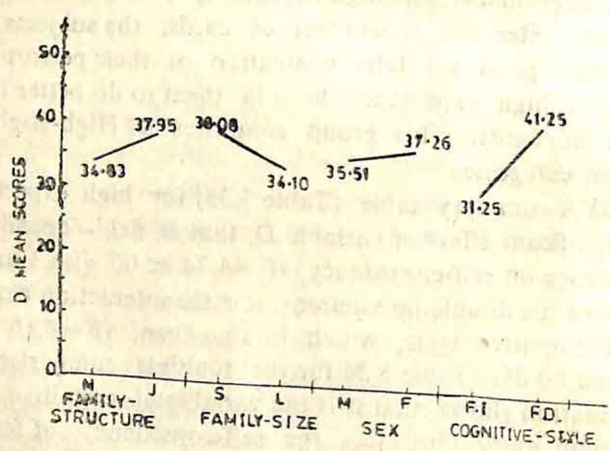


FIGURE 3.31: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for High Expectancy*

TABLE 3.34: *Multiple Comparison of the Interaction between Sex and Cognitive Style in Higher Expectancy*

Combination		c_2d_1	c_1d_2	c_1d_1	c_2d_2	*Shortest Significant Range*		
	Means	*2.17*	*2.90*	*3.02*	*4.02*		*.05**	*.01***
c_2d_1	2.17		.73	.85	1.85*	R_2	1.69	2.22
c_1d_2	2.90			.12	1.12	R_3	1.78	2.32
c_1d_1	3.02				1.00	R_4	1.84	2.38

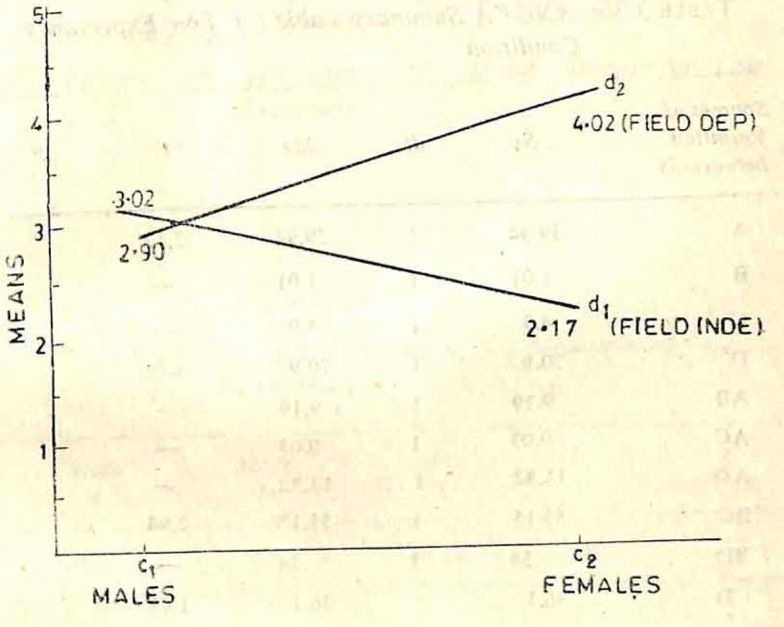


FIGURE 3.32: *Self Consistency as a Function of Sex and Cognitive Style*

Thus, field-independent females are more self consistent in comparison to field-dependent females (Means=2.17 and 4.02 respectively).

Low Expectancy Condition and Self-Consistency

Under this condition subjects were exposed to a very poor evaluation of their performance after the completion of set IV by the experimenter. The instructions were meant to arouse a low expectancy in the subjects for the fifth set of cards. This condition takes into account the D data of Low-low and Low-high groups.

The ANOVA summary table (Table 3.35) suggests that the main effects, as well as, the interactive effects remain insignificant in context to self-consistency. Figure 3.33 gives an overall picture of the self consistency scores which supports the results.

TABLE 3.35: *ANOVA Summary Table for Low Expectancy Condition*

Sources of Variation between Ss	*Ss*	*df*	*Ms*	*F*	*P*
A	39.94	1	39.94	2.12	
B	1.01	1	1.01	—	
C	4.9	1	4.9	—	
D	70.9	1	70.9	3.78	
AB	9.19	1	9.19	—	
AC	0.03	1	0.03	—	
AD	13.32	1	13.32	—	
BC	55.15	1	55.15	2.94	
BD	.54	1	.54	—	
CD	36.1	1	36.1	1.93	
ABC	49.25	1	49.25	2.63	
ABD	21.72	1	21.72	1.16	
ACD	0.00	1	0.00	—	
BCD	23.99	1	23.99	1.28	
ABCD	10.86	1	10.86	—	
Within	1499.23	80	18.74		
Total	1836.13	95			

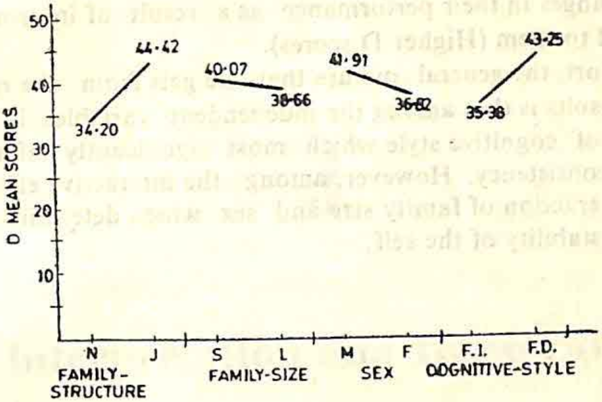


FIGURE 3.33: *Self Consistency Mean Scores for Low Expectancy*

TABLE 3.36: *Correlation between Two Measures of Self-Consistency*

Mean d	*Mean D*	*d*	*D*	*r*
49.05	7.48	20.29	3.98	.72

Besides the analysis of d and D data, an attempt has also been made to find the correlation between self-consistency scores (d and D data) obtained on the two measures of self-concept scale and information feedback. Pearson's method of coefficient of correlation with the scatter diagram has been used for this, and the results denote a very high positive correlation of +.72 between the measures, and the positive value of 'r' indicates that there is a tendency for subjects having a high Basic-Ideal discrepancy (d) score to also make more changes in their performance as a result of information provided to them (Higher D scores).

In short, the general picture that one gets from the review of the results is that among the independent variables, it is the variable of cognitive style which most significantly influences the self-consistency. However, among the interactive effects, it is the interaction of family size and sex which determines and controls stability of the self.

4

Interpretation and Discussion

On the general assumption that people act consistently, and that the personality traits studied in the testing situation universally characterise the individual's style of life, predictions are made and tested concerning the person's behaviour over a variety of situations and time.

The importance of self-consistency is increasingly on the focus in all aspects of behavioural sciences. In Lecky's work for example, we find that the normally functioning human being strives for consistency in all aspects of his life. Mental imbalance and suffering are equated with blockage of consistency striving, and therapy is largely envisioned as a tool to remove such blocks (Lecky 1945). Further, Rogers presumes the integration of various aspects of the person into a unified concept of self to be accompanied by feelings of comfort and freedom from tension, resulting in unity in the internal self as becoming a goal of psychotherapy (Rogers 1951).

The present research undertakes to study the influence of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style on self-consistency. The significance of the result obtained is being discussed here in reference to all the variables.

Family Structure and Self Consistency

Family structure which takes into account Nuclear and Joint families is the first independent variable of the study.

The hypothesis formulated in determining its relationship with self consistency was that subjects born and brought up in Nuclear families are more self-consistent in comparison to subjects born and brought up in Joint families.

The results reveal that when self-consistency was measured along the Basic-Ideal discrepancy dimension, with the exception of construct I (Health and Sex Appropriateness) and construct VIII (Feelings of Shame and Guilt), the rest of the constructs support the hypothesis. Though the differences have not been proved statistically significant, yet the results show a general trend of B-I d means sloping downward from joint to nuclear family, enhancing self-consistency for the latter. In the second measure also, which studies self-consistency as a function of information, we find that the subjects of Nuclear family are more self-consistent (in terms of less changes in their responses over the repeated trial) when compared to subjects belonging to joint family. The composite score (Md-Total Self-Concept and MD-Total Information) also exhibits similar directionality.

The trend may be supported by the explanation that whereas in the Nuclear family, the number of authority figures is less (in the form of parents only), this authority is vested in a number of people in a joint family. It is not only the development of the self-concept which is affected by this factor but also the maintenance or stability of this self-concept in its most realistic form.

The nuclear family is composed of two generations, each with different needs, prerogatives and tasks and has strong internal emotional bonds. The child and his needs are the focus of the parents who are of two different backgrounds. The nuclear household came into existence in one of the following ways. One in which brothers separate into their nuclear units on the death of parents and secondly where parents die and leave son and his family behind.

The joint family on the other hand, is frequently defined as a three generation or a four generation group, living under one roof, eating food cooked at one hearth, holding property in common fund, incurring expenses from the same fund, participating in common family worship and working under the authority of the senior male member. (Longman 1973). Here tradition and pride are strong and individual members are dominated by the opinions of the larger groups, lacking individual attention of the parents in each child.

Though this picture of the joint family still identifies rural India, it is being modified or slowly giving way to a more refined form of the joint family. Frequently the term of the extended family is being used in the place of the joint family where the former is conceived as making explicit, the implicit meaning of the latter, that the combination of two or more elementary families is based on an extension of the parent-child relation. Previously in India, the child's social environment was largely within the joint family, now also permitting outside significant others in it.

In the social setting of the joint family pattern, unlike the nuclear family, the child has many parent surrogates. He may feel as close to his aunts as to his mother and with the distribution of work; an essential characteristic of joint family, all females may be perceived to have identical roles and functions. Thus, it is the keypoint of the joint and extended families, that the child, in this type of family structure is not disciplined by or responsible to a single individual and authority. Ziller (1973) states that "in the extended family constellations the Indian child is prized, magnified, pushed forward, warned, threatened, rebuked, idealized, fancied in grandoise terms of future achievement". It was found that the Indian children representing joint family accompany parents or parent surrogates everywhere.

Though the modern joint urban family is different from the traditional joint family which according to Davis (1965) "strongly limits social mobility and social change because it binds the individual to others on the basis of birth, forces him to contribute to the support of a larger group, independently of their ability introduces nepotism into both business and politics and assumes control of the vounger generation by the elders."

With an increase in the opportunities for individual financial gains, modernization and the impact of education, the joint family is slowly disintegrating in the urban areas of India. The modern Joint family may no longer prepare food and eat together, worship together or enjoy property in common, and yet dwell in the same house under the same roof. According to Kapadia (1959) "the only feature of the joint family that still exists in the son's interest is the property of the family inherent in the fact of his birth'. He further analyzes that "Even in those cases where the property is divided, and the income of the members of the families is not pooled, the constituent families maintain their connections through mutual co-operation, rights and obligations, other than those of family meets on such various occasion as the marriage feast etc".

Though both Nuclear and Joint family patterns prevalent in India provide healthy atmosphere for children, especially males, it so happens that the child finds himself among a number of people right from beginning in the joint family. His gregariousness and need to affiliate find a very premature and early start. This helps latter in his life, and the probability of children born and brought up in joint families being more social, outgoing and extraverted hence increases. It is at this point that we see the influence of the number of authority figures in the house, who have the major role in moulding the personality of the child and development of his self-concept. It is theoretically and empirically proved that the self-concept is born from one's social image reflected in the eyes of others. With a conflict and diversion of this self-reflection in the eyes of all the members of the family, the child in a joint family would comparatively be more baffled and awestruck leading to a shaky picture of the self than the child belonging to the Nuclear family.

The aspirations, expectations and demands of the parents and other authority figures have some meaning in the form of responsibilities, duties etc., for the child to behave in a particular way and if by chance there are conflicting demands, the growing adolescent dwindles between them, not able to actualize and evaluate himself. The likelihood of such a situation to take place is greater in the case of joint family rather than the nuclear family. By the time, the individual attains maturity at adulthood, he is so tired of his different roles, that he prefers a world of fantasy. His ideals are too unrealistic to achieve and the disparity between his basic and ideal self concept continues throughout the life span. This may be true even of a nuclear family, however, with the gradual onset of education, economic independence of families and broadmindedness of ideas, even two or more than two generations living under the same roof have nuclear patterns with the child being the focus of his parents mostly. Thus the basic reason for lack of significant differences between the self-consistency of subjects belonging to nuclear and joint family patterns in the present study may be, due to the change in thinking and interpersonal relations in the family. This is supported by the study of Saha & Guha (1985), wherein family structure was found to have no effect on self-concept scores of the Bengalee Hindu adolescents. The basic fact that the present sample was urban also reflects upon the similarity in family setup, thinking and ideologies. The sample of rural area needs to be taken in future researches to see the influence of family structure on stability of self.

Family Size and Self Consistency

Family size, which is the second variable of the present study presumes that subjects belonging to small sized families are more self-consistent, when compared to those belonging to large sized families. This was proposed in line with the findings that family size has a negative correlation with perception of parents as loving and supportive and positively with parental rejection and control (Peterson and Kunz 1975, Kidwell 1981).

The results reveal that in the 'd' data, it is construct number V (worthiness), VII (beliefs and convictions $F<.05$). IX (sociability), X (emotional maturity) and total B-I d mean which report findings in the same direction, as hypothesized. The mean d of subjects of large families (in the above mentioned constructs) being greater than the mean d scores of small family subjects, showing an increased Basic-Ideal congruity and self-consistency in the latter, though this difference is statistically insignificant. On the other hand construct I (health and sex appropriateness $F<.05$), II (Abilities), III (self-confidence), IV (self-acceptance), VI (present, past and future) and VIII (feeling of shame and guilt) indicate results showing subjects of large families as more self-consistent with less B-I d in comparison to small family subjects.

With regard to the information feedback as the measure of self-consistency, once again consistent information, discrepant information, as well as, information as a whole show a directional change in the responses of Ss as predicted, with higher D score for large families in comparison to small families. However, for expectancy, both high and low, once again the differences in the size of family relate small families more to self-inconsistency in comparison to large family subjects. Though all these differences are statistically insignificant, they depict the trend and its contradictory nature suggesting more explicit exploration in greater details. An attempt is being made to review plausible explanation for the obtained directionality.

The size of the family influences the personality pattern both directly and indirectly. Directly it determines what role the person will play in the family constellation, what kind of relationship he will have with other family members, and to a large extent what opportunities he will have to make the most of his native abilities. Indirectly, family size influence the personality patterns through the kind of home climate fostered by families of different sizes and by the attitude of the most significant members of the family towards the person.

Small family which refers to lesser number of children (determined in the present study as an index of number of siblings in nuclear family pattern, and number of people in a joint house in the joint family) is more often considered the result of urbanization, education and development of the self with the nation. In terms of self-fulfilment, the parents gain satisfaction through recognition of the potential that has been utilised by their children in serving for their desires and their own needs. Small family ensures more efficient socialisation of the child, and helps the family to concentrate better on its specialized task of personality development of the children.

Large families comprise of a number of siblings in the case of nuclear structure and a great many relations in terms of authority figures in joint family structure. It has been conceived as a family full of friction and conflicts, not desirous for growth and development of the self and personality of the child.

In comparison to large families, children are much more wanted in small families and the parent-child relationship is usually warm and wholesome. In a small family, democratic control usually prevails, permitting each family member to develop his own interests and talents and thus encouraging creativity and individuality. The self finds a very appropriate and congenial atmosphere to develop. Though there have been instances and evidences reporting over-indulgence, over-dependence, overprotection and unrealistically high aspiration of parents from children belonging to small family with one child or two. However, this does not have as disastrous an effect on the self-development and self-consistency later on, as the negligence and indifference initially characteristic of large family parent-child relationship, now slowly spreading its vicious claws on the modern educated small family with working parents.

In a large nuclear family the parents generally have dfficulty to give undivided attention to the needs and desires of each child. With limited means, time, and energy when they are unable to meet adequately the multiplicity of demands, they become irritable and indifferent towards their responsibilities and many a times ignore the achievements and failures of the child. Children who are victims of such catastrophies, may fall into bad company ruining themselves further by getting involved in anti-social acts and enhancing the personality maladjustment.

In the present study size of the family plays an ambivalent role in determining self-consistency with contradictions on the one hand and statistically insignificant gender differences on the other. This needs more extensive exploration to reach any conclusion as well as a comparison with the rural sample.

Sex and Self Consistency

The third hypothesis is in relation to the third independent variable of sex which assumes males to be more self-consistent when compared to females. The results though statistically insignificant obtain a trend in the opposite direction with females being more self consistent in contrast to males.

The composite picture one gets from the results is that excluding constructs VIII (shame & guilt), IX (sociability) and X (emotional maturity) in the B-I d and discrepant information and high expectancy in D data, rest of the constructs (I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII—$F<.05$, and total B-I d) and information conditions (consistent, information as a whole and low expectancy) reveal females as more self-consistence than males. Some studies find no changes in self-concept as a function of sex (Turner & Vanderlippe 1958, McIntire & Drummond 1976), while a number of evidences have found changes.

Tschechtelm (1953) observed that girls at all ages err on the side of overestimation of their adjustment and the attractiveness of their personalities, whereas boys underrate themselves, but less so, as they grow old. Girls have a greater need of overcompensation for ego evaluation which indicates greater incongruency between the basic and ideal self.

Martire & Hornberger (1957) showed that female subjects conceived of themselves living upto their own ideals, but their personal ideals and conducts were not congruent with what they perceived society desired of them. Similarly, a study on B-I level of 9 temperament and orientation dimensions resulted in greater discrepancy in females (Macik 1985).

Perkins (1958) observing significant sex differences found greater S-I congruence in girls than boys. Though he also proposed that physical maturity accounts for sex differences. Jorgenson & Howell (1969) found males to be more congruent in S-I discrepancy than females. In perception of physical self-concept female adolescents were more self-consistent than male adolescents (Jain, Bhatnagar & Rastogi 1988).

Since the age of the present sample was 20-25 years, males were assumed to be more self-consistent. Though statistically insignificant, the results express a contrary trend. Females according to Steiner (1960) were more inclined to tolerate dissonance, which is consistent with the description of the changing female role in Indian culture. It is generally assumed that society forbids females from using overt rejection and devaluation as a means of resolving conflict.

In general, females show a more passive acceptance of the field than males and are also less responsive to bodily experiences (Pervin 1970). In India these assumptions apply with little room left for argument. Even in urban families girls are taught right from childhood to adhere strictly to their social role, to follow certain norms, values and modes of acceptable behaviour more religiously than boys. Even if, they feel that these roles do not befit them and want to rebel, they remain quiet for the fear of being subjected to social criticism, ridicule and disapproval. As a result, there is less discrepancy between their Basic and Ideal self evaluation. This may be supported by McKee & Sherrif's (1957) study. This only supports the trend of the results. However, the fact remains that in the present study gender differences do not account for the self-consistency of the Ss. The absence of significant sex difference may be attributed to the sample characteristics—urban educated (M. Sc. students) girls & boys served as Ss. It needs further probing at a lower level of education, or the locale, i.e., urban and rural may be taken to validate the findings of the present study.

Cognitive Style and Self Consistency

Cognitive style in relation to self consistency was presumed to associate one of its bipolar dimension of field independence to greater self consistency and the second dimension of field dependence to less self consistency and the second dimension of field dependence to less self consistency or inconsistency. It has obtained highly significant findings supporting the hypothesis.

It is not only the B-I d means which reveal the discrepancy in the self consistency (d scores of Field independent and Field dependents in seven out of ten constructs) but also the information feedback measure where the same trend of consistency with respect to Field independence-dependence is observed. Finally, the composite d and D scores also support the findings.

It is of interest to note further, that it is cognitive style, the variable of personality characteristics which yields most significant results in its relation to self-consistency. Thus when Analysis of Variance was applied to study the main effects (as well as interactive effects), it was found that among all four independent variables, it is the variable of cognitive style which obtains maximum significant statistical differences in relation to self consistency (seven out of ten constructs of self-concept scale for analysis of d data). For consistancy as a function of information method also, when D data was analysed, the variable of cognitive style emerged dominant and significant in the consistent information condition and High Expectancy. Finally, the overall analysis of both d and D data by above also yield significant F for cognitive style at .01 level of significance (Refer Table 3.29 and Table 3.32 and Figures 3.28 and 3.30).

Thus the general picture one gets is that, field independence is positively related with self-consistency, and field-dependence with self-inconsistency. Previous explorations in this field provides a contradictory base. Douglas (1974) using the sample of 84 graduates measured self consistency and suggested no significant effect of cognitive style upon the variability or change in the self-concept. Similar are the findings of McIntire & Drummond (1976).

These, two studies obtain results contrary to the present findings in the study. In Douglas' study (1974), the tool used for measuring cognitive style was Hidden Figures Test Form V and not EFT or RFT. Secondly, McIntire & Drummond (1976) used pre-adolescents as a sample when cognitive style is still in the process of development from field-dependence to relative field independence. Studies denote that cognitive style attains stability around adulthood (Witkin, Oltman, Raskin & Karp 1971, Witkin, Goodenough & Karp 1961 etc). Besides, McIntire & Drummond measured self consistency over time. Since self-concept attains stability around 20-21 years, it is debatable that they have not found any change in self-concept of the Ss over two years, more so, when the self, concept of the pre-adolescents is still developing.

On the other hand, Rudin & Stagner (1958) in their study on self consistency over situations find similar results, as that of the present study, with field independents being more self-consistent. Similar results have been reported by Campus

(1971) in his study, relating various personality factors to self-consistency across situations. He found a positive relationship between self consistency and field independence. Though this study measures self consistency across situations, yet it yields similar results and supports the findings, as well as, the hypothesis that field independents are more self-consistent when compared to field-dependents.

Cognitive style which may be defined as a "hypothetical construct that has been developed to explain the process of mediation between stimulus and responses" (Gold Stain and Blackman 1978) is thus S.O.R. model focusing on an individual's typical style of organizing and assimilating information, rather than explaining his thought, control and knowledge (Michael *et al.* 1980).

The basic theory of differentiation resting on the concept of cognitive style and its dimension of field dependence-independence proposes an association among the characteristics of greater or more limited differentiation identified in the comparison of early and later functioning in each of the several psychological areas. These are degree of articulation of experience of the world; degree of articulation of the self, reflected particularly in nature of body concept and extent of development of specialized, structured controls and defenses. Implicit in this hypothesis is the view that greater differentiation is associated with greater articulation experience of the world" (Brislin *et al.* 1973). The initial and the modified, both models of differentiation give a lot of importance to articulated cognitive functioning, articulated body concept, sense of separate identity, and self-nonself segregation.

In other words, a self which is not segregated from the field (or field-dependent) is characteristic of people who are merged and fused with their surroundings. This self is defined by the external situations, and it is in field-dependence, where self does not have a separate identity and consequently a poor self-nonself segregation. Perceptual independence from the field however, is characterised by a well developed conception of the self which sets it apart from the surroundings. Thus, differentiation of the self, or independence finds its manifestation in both behavioural and perceptual processes.

Berk (1970) in his study on some structural and functional aspects of the self-concept assumed that subjects with Low self-concept differentiation would be more likely to have extreme self-concept change reactions than subjects with high S.C. differentiation and the hypothesis was confirmed.

Thus, according to the theory of differentiation, as well as, above mentioned sources, the self-nonself merging, or self-identity is characteristic of field independence-dependence continuum. It is obvious that the greater the merging of self and nonself, and lesser the feeling of self-identity, the greater would be the disparity between the basic and ideal self, and also more changes will be produced in the self in the face of discrepant information. In short, greater B-I disparity, as well as, greater change in responses as a function of information, is related to field dependent cognitive style, as is found in the present study.

Another study on S-I disparity explains and reasons out self-inconsistency on the basis of cognitive style. Achanbach & Zigler (1963) in their study found S-I disparity to be concomitant with the demonstrated capacity to acheive in areas most valued in our society. Further, high self-image (self-ideal) disparity most often accompanies the attainment of higher levels of development, since the greater cognitive differentiation found at such levels most invariably leads to a greater capacity for self-derrogation, guilt and anxiety.

The dimension of field dependence-independence or global *vs*. articulated perceptual style has been described as a general feature of human functioning. The fact remains that, with the relative stability and consistency of the dimension over time and across situations in a number of studies, it has now become a very important and major personality variable.

Since self is the core of the personality, it is not an exaggeration if one states that self without cognitive style as an index of the personality characteristics, is an incomplete area of exploration for research in personality. Self is the nucleus of personality, and traits revolve around the nucleus and integrate with it, giving rise to the particular pattern of personality. Cognitive style has maximum relevance in its integration with self in the development and healthy growth of personality.

Thus, the stability of the self, or in other words self-consistency is, to quite an extent, controlled and determined by the typical personality characteristics or the cognitive style of that individual. The aforesaid discussion on the relationship between cognitive style and self-consistency, and the impact of the former on the latter clearly depicts that self consistency is positively related with field-independence. Since personality characteristics and traits are the governing agents of one's behavior, it seems that cognitive style in the guise of field dependence-independence has overshadowed the influence of the other three variables of family structure, family size and sex on self-consistency.

Further, the independence impact of field dependence-independence speaks for its salience even when it is treated in relation to other variables. The independent effects of the first three Independent variables, however are statistically insignificant as mentioned earlier. Similar trend is notified in the interactive effects, hence interactive effects with cognitive style would be discussed before others.

Before discussing the interactive effects it is important to make clear, that the Basic-Ideal discrepancy data (d) and the information leading to change in responses data (D), correspond to the same variables, hence, they are being discussed together, not only for the purpose of clarity, but also to save it from the claws of confusion.

As stated above, first of all, the interactions related with cognitive style (starting from double, going to triple and further quartiple) are being discussed here. The first of these is the AD interaction.

Family Structure × Cognitive Style and Self Consistency (AD Interaction)

The interaction of family structure with cognitive style, keeping the other two variables of family size and sex constant, has a significant impact on the self consistency of only one construct of the self-concept scale, measuring B-I disparity. This is construct V with items of worthiness, obtaining the F value of $4.44 < .05$. (Table 3.9).

A review of the results for the detailed analysis of the significant AD interaction depicts the relevance of cognitive style in determining the self consistency of subjects belonging to joint families, as well as, the importance of family structure in field dependent subjects. Besides these two, both variables significantly differ from each other. Field independents of joint family are most self-consistent whereas, the group yielding maximum self-inconsistency comprises of field dependents belonging to joint family.

The self-consistency for items of worthiness is determined and controlled by the dominant effect of cognitive style over family structure. Thus, it is proved that self consistency is positively related with field independence and also that self inconsistency is more closely related to joint family than nuclear family for self-evaluation of worthiness. Further, it is field independents of joint, and not nuclear family, who are most self-consistent. This may be explained on the basis of the dominance of cognitive style on family structure.

Family Size × Cognitive Style and Self Consistency (BD Interaction)

The family size though yielding mostly statistically insignificant independent results, in both d and D data, becomes significant when it is merged with cognitive style for the items of construct IX (sociability; F value of 6.74<.05 in Table 3.20). Further, the multiple comparison suggests that small family field independents differ significantly from field dependents of large families. The maximum B-I congruence for sociability is achieved by field independents of the large family followed by field dependents, and field dependents of small family respectively, whereas, the field dependents of large family yield maximum B-I disparity. As predicted and supported by findings, the field dependents of large family are most inconsistent, and field independents of large family attain maximum B-I congruence for the perception of social behaviour.

Family Structure × Family Size × Cognitive Style and Self Consistency (ABD Interaction)

Family structure and family size when viewed independently do not have a significant impact on self consistency, however, when both are merged with cognitive style, they influence consistency of construct V of worthiness which is probably due to high significant main effect of variable D, ($F=14.39 <.01$). Besides, the AB interaction also yields significant F value of $5.70<.05$ and hence, the ABD interaction significantly influence the Basic-Ideal congruence for items of worthiness ($F=5.05<.05$).

When analyzed further, we come to know that the group attaining maximum B-I congruence is of Field independents belonging to joint small family followed by field independents of nuclear and large family pattern. Whereas maximum B-I disparity is attained by the field dependents of joint small family preceded by field-dependents of joint large family. Thus, it is clear, that field dependence-independence is the most dominant factor in influencing the self consistency of the subjects in their perception of the actual and ideal self worth.

Family Structure × Sex × Cognitive Style and Self-Consistency (ACD Interaction)

The family structure when interacting with sex and cognitive style, keeping the variable of family size constant, has a significant impact on self-consistency of construct II of Abilities ($F=6.93 <.01$ table 3.3.). The major implication of this interactional analysis is that, the family size does not operate uniformly in males and females, and most significantly influences the self-consistency of female field-dependents (Table 3.5 and Figure 3.4). Maximum B-I congruency is obtained by field independent males of the nuclear family, partially supportting the first and fourth hypotheses, and it is the combination of field-independent females of nuclear family, who show maximum B-I disparity in evaluation of their abilities.

Family Size × Sex × Cognitive Style and Self-Consistency (BCD Interaction)

With the interactional effect of family size × sex (or BC) being significant at .01 level for emotional maturity it is debatable, whether the effect of this interaction when merged with the variable of cognitive style (which is insignificant for the present construct) would be significant. The results in Table 3.22 of analysis of variance provide the answer. The BCD interaction significantly influences B-I d for the items of Emotional maturity at .05 level ($F=5.47<.05$ Table 3.22 for construct X).

Further a probe into the detailed analysis reveals that, it is the variables of family size and sex which for once, have dominated the influence of cognitive style. Whereas family size operates significantly in controlling the self-consistency of field dependent females, it is sex on the other hand, which determines and accounts for self-consistency differences of field dependents belonging to small families (Table 3.25 and Figure 3.24).

Thus, it is clear that, field-dependents, as true to their personality characteristics, are more influenced by the suggestions and attitudes of parental authorities and number of siblings. However, the hypothesis of males being more self-consistent in comparison to females is upheld in context to B-I d of emotional maturity, which accounts for male field-dependents of small family being most self-consistent, in contrast to female field-dependents of small family yielding maximum B-I d here. In short, it is the sex differences which have overlooked the family size differences from a great height, as to reduce the latter to a minimum.

This is the only instance, where cognitive style has been superseded by any other variable.

Family Structure × Family Size × Sex × Cognitive Style and Self-Consistency (ABCD Interaction)

The quartiple interaction of all four variables of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style when merged together, significantly influences the B-I d of items of shame and guilt (construct VIII), the F value of 17.85 is highly significant <.01 (Table 3.17). Further results give a complete picture that all the variables are significantly affecting each other. Whereas, family structure has a most significant effect on self-consistency of female field-dependents of small families, the variable of family size operates more significantly in the case of female field dependents belonging to Joint family. Sex on the other hand, controls and determines most of the combinations of small, joint and field dependents. Cognitive style marks its significant impact on the self-consistency of females only (belonging to both Nuclear and Joint as well as small and large, however lesser for large families).

The combination, which attains maximum self consistency in this interaction consists of males belonging to joint and small size family pattern having a field-dependent cognitive style, followed by famale field independents, of the nuclear large family pattern. The group which yields the most unstable self-concept (Maximum B-I d) for this construct of shame and guilt comprises of female field-dependents belonging to joint and small family pettern closely preceded by female field-dependents belonging to nuclear and small family pattern. Thus, where feelings of shame and guilt are concerned, it is male field-dependents of joint and small families, who have a most realistic self and ideal evaluation with maximum congruence between B and I. Perhaps it is the impact of family structure and size which correlates field dependent males with high self-consistency, though field-independence has been proved to be significantly and positively related to self-consistency. The second combination is of famale field independents from nuclear and large families. Further, the group attaining maximum self-inconsistency also corroborates to the findings, since it is comprising of female field-dependents belonging to joint and small family.

Family Structure × Family Size and Self-Consistency (AB Interaction)

The AB interaction is found significant only in construct V with items of worthiness ($F=5.70<.05$ with 1 and 176 df. Table 3.9), keeping the variables of sex and cognitive style constant. The results show that it is family structure which plays a statistically dominant and significant role in controlling the self-consistency of subjects belonging to large sized families. The maximum self consistency here is obtained by the nuclear large family subjects in comparison to subjects of joint large families who have highest B-I d. Joint small family subjects, and nuclear small family subjects rank second and third respectively. Here, hypothesis one is being supported with nuclear family subjects being more self consistent than joint family subjects. What comes to therefore, is that Ss from large families are more self-consistent in their perception of their self worth in comparison to their counterparts of small families. Keeping the variables of sex and cognitive style constant, it was found that, it is the family pattern of nuclear structure with large family size which attains maximum self-consistency.

Family Size×Sex and Self Consistency (BC Interaction)

It is indeed interesting to note that when we review the independent and single effect of these two variables on stability of self both in the B-I discrepancy data (d) and information feedback data (D), the effect is statistically insignificant. However, when they are merged together, the combined effect seems noteworthy, and a review of the results (section of analysis) helps us in confirming the hypothesis devised for the variables independently and interactively. This interaction of family size with sex observes significant differences in influencing self-consistency in the Basic-Ideal Discrepancy data in constructs, II, III, V, VI, VIII, X and the total B-I d on the S.C. scale (Constructs of abilities, self-confidence, worthiness and present, past and future, feelings of shame and guilt and emotional maturity, respectively).

For construct II of abilities the family size×sex or BC interaction yields a highly significant F value of 16.46<.01 (Table 3.3). Further analysis reveals that it is the combination of males from small family which attains the maximum self consistency followed by females belonging to large families, and that it is females born and brought up in small family who have the highest B-I disparity preceded by the males of large families (Table 3.4 and figure 3.3).

Thus, sex differences in the small family size are more pronounced with regard to self-consistency, whereas family size differences are more prominent in the case of females.

For self-confidence (construct-III) the BC interaction has the F value of $7.08 < .01$ (Table 3.6), where the maximum congruence between Basic and Ideal is observed in females belonging to large family (who were number two in construct II) closely followed by males of small families. The remaining two combinations remain in the same order with females from small families having the maximum B-I disparity ranking just above males of large families. However, in this case family size differences in females supersede the sex differences in small families only marginally.

For construct V of worthiness (Table 3.9) the obtained F for BC interaction is $4.84 < .05$, the results are interesting and astray from those above mentioned. It is only the sex difference which operates significantly in large families, with the result of females belonging to large families securing lowest B-I d mean, or highest self-consistency, followed closely by males of small families (same order as that of construct III), and females belonging to small family come third in number headed by males of large families yielding maximum discrepancy (Table 3.12).

The discrepancy between basic and ideal self-concept for the items with present, past and future (construct VI) obtains the F value of $6.06 < .05$ level (Table 3.14). A review of the results (Table 3.15 and figure 3.14) once again brings forth the combination of females with large family background as most self consistent, followed by males of small families, with females of small family as next in number, and males with large family obtains highest D-I discrepancy. The sex differences are more strongly operating in large families, and family size differences operate in females with regard to self-consistency.

For construct VIII which is entitled shame and guilt, the BC interaction is highly significant with F of $20.71 < .01$ (Table 3.17), where females of large family once again are found to be most self-consistent in comparison of females of small family, who obtain the highest B-I discrepancy. The males of small and large family obtain second and third position respectively (Table 3.18 and figure 3.17). Thus family differences play a major role here in the case of females, as well as, males with regard to self consistency, whereas sex differences account for significant disparity in self-consistency in the case of large families only.

Items related with the evaluation of emotional maturity in construct X also observe marked differences in self consistency as measured along the B-I disparity in context to the family size × sex interaction with $F=8.28<.01$ (Table 3.22). In this construct the males of small family rank highest in self consistency, followed by females of large family in the second place. Among the males of large families and females of small family, it is the latter which yields the maximum Basic-Ideal disparity, leaving the former on the third position (Table 3.24 and figure 3.23). The sex differences are markedly observed in subjects belonging to small families, whereas family size accounts for differences in self-consistency for males more significantly in comparison to females.

When self consistency of the total B-I disparity is viewed overall ten constructs, we find the emergence of family size and sex as a significant double interaction, influencing self consistency with F value of $16.15<.01$ (Table 3.26). Very interesting findings come to light here, for it is not only the large sized family, but also the small families which account for significant differences in self consistency as a function of sex variation. Family size on the other hand operates more significantly (.01) in females than males (.05, Table 3.28), with the results of females of large family having maximum congruence in Basic and Ideal self-perception, closely followed by males of small families. The females of small families once again attain maximum B-I disparity and are most self-inconsistent preceded by males of large families close at its heels.

The global picture we get from the discussion is that it is the females with large family background who are most self-consistent on the whole, with males belonging to small size families closely following them, with the only exceptional obvious difference of the evaluation of abilities and emotional maturity, where the latter rank as most congruent. Similarly the females born and brought up in small families seem to have a lot of disparity between their Basic and Ideal self, reasoning out the lowest consistency in the present study for the above mentioned constructs, with males of large families just preceding them. The evaluation of the Basic and Ideal on items of worthiness and present past and future however proves exceptional to the general findings where, females of small family turn out to be more self-consistent in comparison to males of large families giving the latter the lowest position on self-consistency on the self-concept scale.

Thus, whereas in the small families the males develop a more healthy self and are more self-consistent, the females of the same family (small) in their efforts to individualise their identity have unrealistic and faulty evaluations of their self and Ideal, making them self inconsistent. In the large family, however, the females in accepting their role passively have low ideals and aspirations, bringing their ideal image closer to their basic self and leading to enhanced self-congruence in comparison to males of the large family who grope for identity in vain. With large number of siblings in nuclear family pattern, and increased number of authority figures in joint, they fail to ascertain a mature realistic evaluation of their self and Ideal making their self-concepts unstable.

B-I Disparity d Data as a Whole

If we review the results of the d data on the whole we find that it is construct V of worthiness which has shown maximum fluctuations and marked differences in self-consistency as a result of independent and interactional effects and their variations. In other words, evaluation of self worth is that sensitive area of personality, which may be called the core or nucleus of self-evaluation. It is the base of all related concepts of self-esteem, self-devaluation, self-consciousness, self-disclosure, self regard, positive and negative self-concept and evaluation. It is not only the cognitive style which effects stability of the self-in this area but also the interactions between family structure and family size (AB), family structure and cognitive style (AD), family size and sex (BC), and finally between family structure, family size and cognitive style (ABD).

Construct VII which deals with the Beliefs and Convictions of the subject also observes noticeable variations in self-consistency, on the parameter of B-I disparity, as a result of significant influence of all the four variables and their independent effect. It is indeed interesting to note that this is the only construct which has obtained significant differences in Basic-Ideal congruence, as well as, the information data (D), where all four variables of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style leave their lasting impression on self-consistency. In other words, the beliefs and convictions one holds and their consistency to quite an extent is determined by the family he is born and brought into, its structure and size, the sex he belongs to, and the cognitive style; field independence-dependence he has.

Construct VIII which takes in its scope the items related with guilt and feelings of shame falls next in number in showing changes in self consistency as a function of the independent and interactional effect of the variables taken in the present study. The global picture suggests that it is not only the cognitive style of the individual alone, but also the interaction of the family size—number of sibilings he has, and his own gender, as well as, the compound interactional impact of his family structure, family size, gender and perceptual style—field independence-dependence which account for the congruence he has between his Basic and Ideal self-concept in context to feelings of guilt and shame; the deep rooted seat of a number of complexes and maladjustment.

Construct II or the self and ideal evaluation of one's abilities yields findings suggesting that it is not only the merging of or interactional effects of the size of family he was born and brought up with his gender, which decides his conformity between the basic and ideal evaluation of abilities and potential, but also, the interactional effect of family structure,—joint and nuclear to which he belongs, with his gender and his cognitive style that account for the congruence between his Basic and Ideal in realizing and actualizing his capabilities.

The self confidence which one builds up and aspires to possess is tapped by the items dealing with self confidence in Construct III, where we find that besides the independent significant effect of cognitive style, the interaction of the family size, one is born into, and his gender bridge or widen the gap between what he is: Basic and what he wishes to be; Ideal.

Construct VI dealing with the items related with the past, present and future of the subject also influence self consistency in an almost similar way as construct III, bringing the focus of differences in self-consistency, on the independent effect of cognitive style and the interaction between family size and sex of the subject.

Sociability or the behaviour which expresses the social mobility of an individual is an integral part of his behaviour. Construct IX covers this area and the global picture of the construct is that it is not only the cognitive style, an index of the individual's personality characteristics which determines the stability of his social behaviour with reference to his Basic and Ideal self-concept, but also the interaction between family size and cognitive style, which plays a significant role in bringing congruence between his perception of this social aspect of the personality. The total self-concept (B-I d total) once again assumes the importance of perceptual style alone first (field independents-dependents), and then the interaction between family size and sex in relation to the stability of the self-concept.

Construct I of health and sex appropriateness establishes the independent importance of cognitive style alone referring that the consistency of the Basic and Ideal self-evaluation, with regard to items of health and sex appropriateness, is determined by the field independence-dependence of the individual with self-consistency being related to the former and inconsistency to the latter. Similarly, construct X of emotional maturity is influenced by the interactive variation of family size and sex only where it is the number of the siblings, as well as, the gender of the subject that decides the stability and maintenance of emotional maturity. It is only one construct of self-acceptance which does not obtain a single main or interaction effect of the variables in affecting the self-consistency.

Information and Performance Change or D Data as a Whole

With reference to self-consistency as a function of discrepant information, we come to realize after the review of the results, that it is only the variable of cognitive style which significantly controls and influences self-consistency, when information consistent to the performance expectancy is given, and the total information feedback, comprising of both consistent and discrepant information (D data) is analyzed. The characteristics of field dependent-independents clearly bring forth the contention that field independents are guided by internal frames of reference, have their own internal cues in problem solving situations, have an impersonal orientation and less suggestible to external cues, suggestions, and frames of reference, specialize more often in impersonal analytical domains as Physics, Chemistry, Engineering etc. On the other hand, their counterparts: the field dependents are guided by external frames of reference and suggestions in problem solving situations, are very social, and tend to specialize in interpersonal social domains like History, Sociology etc. (Crutchfield and Woodworth 1958, Witkin, and Goodenough 1977, Witkin et al. 1981). This helps to explain that field independents are more self-consistent when information about their performance is provided to them. However, this effect is more pronounced in the condition when information consistent to the expectancy aroused is given to the subjects, and interestingly missing, when information discrepant to the expectancy is given to the subjects.

It is indeed debatable that, why when two measures have been employed to study self-consistency, one is giving less significant results. This may be explained on the basis of two reasons, of which, the first one is the categorization of the Ss at random into the four conditions of High Expectancy – High information, High-Low (Expectancy and Information), Low-High (Expectancy and Information) and finally Low-Low (Expectancy and Information). It is noteworthy to mention here, that when correlations of each subject's score on B-I disparity and performance change score were computed, the correlation by Pearson's r was found to be .76. However, adhering to the experimental design of Aronson & Carlsmith, the sample was distributed in the four groups, in order to derive the two basic conditions of consistent and discrepant category. Since there were in all, sixteen groups (Table 3.1) according to the possible interaction of four independent variables, with 12 subjects in each group, these twelve subjects were equally divided into the above mentioned conditions of expectancy at random, disregarding their actual performance. This is one reason, why if we view individual scores of each individual (d and D scores), it is found that subjects who get a high B-I disparity score also have a high D score (greater change) and this difference is decreased in magnitude due to categorization of these subjects in the expectancy group at random.

Secondly, the reasoning of this lies in the effect the discrepant information has on self-consistency. Thus, when an individual is exposed to some information, which acts an incongruent or discrepant to his existing conceptual structure about himself, it creates tension in the individual, and he tries to fight it, by misperceiving it or distorting it or even denying it to restore the consistency.

The study of Aronson and Carlsmith (1962), which is the base for the measure of self-consistency as a function of discrepant information in the present study, illustrates that subject were caused to fail continuously in a task and then suddenly to find that they had succeeded, and vice versa. They were given fake expectancy arousal also after the first four trials only and, after the fifth trials, as in the present study also, they were given information consistent or discrepant to those expectancy arousals after which another set of problems was given which was actually the fifth set only. The change in the responses from original to repeated Vth indicated self-consistency. Lesser the change, greater the self-consistency. The prediction that in order to restore a consistent state, subjects would purposely engage in behaviour which would cause them to fail again was verified. However, another study which was a partial replication of Aronson and Carlsmith (1962) failed to replicate the findings (Ward and Sandvold 1967).

The task in the present study differed from that of Aronson and Carlsmiths (1962) which was a social sensitivity test with photographs of people and the subject was supposed to identify the schizophrenics in those pictures. The present study used a test of cognitive style and self-devised test for the continuation and the main experimental procedure.

The data of all the subjects reveals that all the Ss were so strongly impigned by the expectancy and information provided that the independent and interactional effects of the variables became negligible. This is especially true of the condition where discrepant information was provided. An important issue in this regard is the importance and value the Ss attached to the task on which their performance was being judged by the E. People actively attempt to control the information, to which they are exposed, in order to maintain an illusion of objectivity regarding the manner in which their self-serving conclusions are devised. Thus, the assumption that evaluation by other varies in degree according to the social and intellectual personal value attached to the task, operates in the present study as the Ss were given the importance of the task, not only from the point of view of intellect and intelligence, but also various aspects of his total personality.

Keeping in line with the theoretical and empirical evidences, the evaluation of the performance by the experimenter mattered to the Ss, and any discrepancy with the subject's conception of his expectation aroused discomfort and he tried his level best to nullify this dissonance by his performance in the repeated trial. It is because of this that the rest of the variables mattered little, and the information being imparted superimposed their possible effect on self consistency, clearly indicating the salience of information. When 't' test was employed to test the hypothesis, that the group being imparted consistent information would be more self-consistent in comparison to the group being exposed to discrepant information, the difference between the self consistency of the two was found to be highly significant ($t = < .01$) and the hypothesis was supported.

In other words, information and evaluation of one's performance has played a very major role in determining the self-consistency of the consistent and discrepant group in a similar way with, the latter being affected less, due to the independent effect of cognitive style.

Thus, in a nutshell it can be said that it is the independent variable of cognitive style which determines the self consistency along both the measures most significantly. Among the interactive effects, it is the effect of family size with sex which leaves a lasting impression in deciding the extent of self consistency, while other variables have scattered significant effects.

5

Conclusion and Suggestions

The present investigation in its attempt to study the influence of family structure, family size, sex and cognitive style on self consistency brings forth very interesting results.

Since self is the nucleus of an individual's personality around which the personality characteristics on traits revolve in a structured pattern, it is the cognitive style, or in other words field independence-dependence, a parameter of personality characteristics, which has been found to be most significantly influencing self consistency. In fact the significant consistent effect of cognitive style over stability of self, observed over the two indices of self consistency: Basic-Ideal disparity and self-consistency over discrepant information, supports our prediction that field independents are more self-consistent in comparison to field dependents. This variable, besides its independent salient dominance, also emerges as significant, when it comes in interaction with other variables, which are found to be statistically insignificant when treated independently in their relation to self consistency.

Besides cognitive style, the interaction between family size and sex turns out to be of extreme significance in determining self consistency of the individuals with the result of males from small family being most stable in their self-concept supporting our hypothesis partially, that males would be more self consistent in comparison to females. However, females of large families are more self consistent than males of large families, leading to the final conclusions, that it is females belonging to large family, who are most self consistent with males born and brought up in small families closely following them. It is the combination of males of the large family background which ranks, lowest on self consistency.

Among the males it is the small family which accounts for enhanced congruity of basic and ideal self-concept, whereas large family reasons out the increased Basic-Ideal congruence in females. Thus family size does not operate uniformly in sex, supporting the hypothesis partially.

The findings of the present study have theoretical implications of supporting and contradicting the results already existing, especially in context to the relationship and influence of sex and cognitive style on self consistency. Further, it also establishes how findings in predicting the Ideal family structure and family size, while keeping the variables of sex and cognitive style constant, we find that it is the family pattern of nuclear structure with large family size that yields maximum self stability and hence can be predicted to be the ideal family pattern for stability of self. This is followed by nuclear family with small size pattern closely preceding joint small family in the second place. It is the combination of joint and large family pattern which yields maximum self-inconsistency supporting the hypotheses of family structure and family size, where subjects of the nuclear family are found to be more self consistent in contrast to those belonging to the joint family and those born and brought up in small families as more self-consistent in comparison to large sized families.

Besides this, the predominating effect of cognitive style on self-consistency relates the core of the personality i.e., self with the personality characteristics, indicating individuals with a particular cognitive style, possessing typical personality characteristics having a particular self consistency. In other words, field independents are found to be more self consistent in comparison to field dependents. Whether it is Maslow's self-actualized personality or Rogar's fully functional personality, Allport's criterion of maturity, personality or Erikson's conception of optimum personality, the core of all the theories lie in the fact, that the healthy personality has the essential feature of self-realization. It may be termed self-awareness, self-actualization or self-evaluation. However, the keynote of this is, how much and how well the individual known, himself in his most realistic perception.

Thus, the better and closer to reality an individual's conception of his abilities, limitations, attitudes towards others and himself or the global self-concept is, the lesser is the difference between his Basic and Ideal self-concept, and it is but obvious that the lesser the difference between an individual's basic and ideal self image; an index of his self consistency, the more stable his self-concept will be.

Similarly, the individual's resistance to incongruent and discrepant information about his own self decides the extent of rigidity to which he maintains his own self-image. Further, the attempts made by him to bring congruence in the system, to nullify the effect of that inconsistency produced by the discrepant information, are revealed by the defence mechanisms he employs to meet his purpose, and at times this is obvious from his overt experience also. It is this personal consistency which plays a conditional role in models developed to explain the processes of social influence.

It may be assumed that the person acts consistently and that the personality traits found in the testing situation or in behaviour otherwise, become characteristics of that individual's personality having a predictive value about his behaviour.

Both Basic-Ideal congruence and self consistency in the face of discrepant information have been studied in the present research, establishing clearly that consistency in self is determined over the two measures, most by the variable of cognitive style, an index of personality characteristics.

Suggestions for further exploration of the field may be made here with the retrospect of what the researcher feels she could not incorporate for some reasons in the present study.

The sample in the present study deals with basically science, post-graduates specializing in analytical science subjects viz. Chemistry, Physics, Zoology, Botany, Geology etc. In this field there has been reported evidence that students specializing in analytical science subjects, as indicated above, are more prone to have field independent or articulated cognitive style (Weber 1977, Witkin *et al.* 1977, Bhatnagar and Rastogi 1984). Since cognitive style has emerged as the predominant factor in controlling and determining the self consistency of the individual, it may be said that the independent impact of other variables of family structure, family size and sex has been minimized by the sample selected, since science students are more prone to be clustered on the extreme of field independence. It may be suggested that if a similar study is designed and conducted on students specializing in Arts subjects of interpersonal domains like History, Political Science etc., the possibility of the significant effects of family structure, family size and sex in determining self consistency may speak for itself.

Besides this, the important factor of birth position in relation to family size can be incorporated to study the relative effect of the two independently, as well as, in interaction with sex and cognitive style on self-consistency.

Since cognitive style taken here as field independence-field dependence is now considered as an index of personality characteristics, both ends of the continuum suggest typical clustering of personality characteristics. On the other hand, some work has also been done on the personality traits and characteristics of self-consistent and inconsistent individuals. A study incorporating the personality profiles of both field independents-dependents and self-consistent-inconsistent could yield very fruitful results, by means of relating the two variables in a unique way enhancing their integrity.

Social desirability, and the ratings given by others, and its disparity with the individual's Basic, Ideal and Social self-evaluation may bring forward not only the differences in the existing and imagined picture of the self, but also the existing and expected perceptions of him by others. Besides, the inert desire to rank oneself high on social desirability items also enlightens one's desire to be socially approved and consistency in behaviour and actions with regard to the desire may be dealt from that angle also.

Further, locus of control, another type or category of cognitive style as a personality construct could be studied in its relation to the personality characteristics of individuals with stable and unstable self-concepts.

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